DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 080 082 HE 004 484

AUTHOR	Friedman, Nathalie; And Others
TITLE	The Federal College Work-Study Program: A Status Report, Fiscal Year 1971. Final Report.
INSTITUTION	Columbia Univ., New York, N.Y. Bureau of Applied Social Research.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Office of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation.
PUB DATE	73
CONTRACT	OEC-0-70-5020(458)
NOTE	432p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$16.45
DESCRIPTORS	*Educational Finance; *Financial Support; Higher Education; *Part Time Jobs; *Student Employment; *Work Study Programs
IDENTIFIERS	*College Work Study Program

ABSTRACT

This report on the Federal College Work-Study (CWS) Program is based on data obtained from students holding CWS jobs, employers hiring students under the program, financial aid personnel administering the program at the institutional level, and officials implementing the program at the regional and national levels. The objectives of the study were to gain information about: (1) the types of programs operating at different institutions, (2) the consequences of the program for students, institutions, and employing agencies, (3) the extent to which existing institutional channels and machinery at the national, regional and institutional levels have been effective in implementing and administering the program, and (4) the extent to which the program is accomplishing its stated objectives. The major conclusion of this study is that the CWS program is achieving its primary goal of enabling students from low-income families to help defray the costs of postsecondary education with the earnings from parttime and summer employment. On the average CWS earnings are paying half of the basic costs of attending college. (Author)

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The Federal College Work-Study Program

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Bureau of Applied Social Research
Columbia University
1973

ED 080082

FINAL REPORT

Grant No. EOC-0-70-5020 (458)

THE FEDERAL COLLEGE WORK-STUDY PROGRAM:

A STATUS REPORT, FISCAL YEAR 1971

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1973

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HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education

Office of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation

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PREFATORY NOTE

This report on the Federal College Work-Study (CWS) Program is based on data obtained from students holding CWS jobs, employers hiring students under the program, financial aid personnel administering the program at the institutional level, and officials implementing the program at the regional and national levels.

All respondents contributed generously of their time by completing questionnaires, supplying statistical data, and--in some instances--spending long hours discussing their experiences in the program with the investigators. In addition, personnel at the Office of Education (Office of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation) have been most helpful, as have been administrators at the regional level.

Intellectual [illegible] and stimulation were provided by many of our colleagues at the Bureau of Applied Social Research, in particular, Dr. Allen Barton and Dr. Sam Sieber, the Principal Investigators for the Study. Special thanks are due to Carol Dulaney who organized, coordinated, and executed the complex tasks involved in conducting a study of this magnitude and who patiently typed the several drafts of the manuscript. Gratitude is also due to Sandy Vogel and Deborah Marks who assisted in the collection, compiling, coding and processing of the data.

The reader should bear in mind that much has occurred in the field of federal financial aid since the data were collected. Changes have taken place in the organizational structure of the Bureau of Higher Education; a Higher Education Bill was passed altering the tripartite aid program analyzed in this study; application forms, guidelines, emphases and practices have been modified. Some of the events recorded are now history--perhaps never to be repeated. Accordingly, it should be emphasized that the data reported in this study cover fiscal year 1971 (academic year 1970-71) and the findings are applicable to conditions existing during this year.

SUMMARY

Background

The Federal College Work-Study Program (CWS) was established under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. Administration was transferred to Office of Education, Division of Student Financial Aid (DSFA)[1] in 1965 with a legislative mandate

> ....*to expand part-time employment opportunities for students, particularly those from low-income families, who are in need of the earnings from part-time employment in order to pursue a course of study at an institution of higher education.*[2]

CWS represents one major element in the three-pronged program of grants,[3] loans, and work through which the Federal Government has been making it possible for financially needy high school graduates to obtain the benefit of higher education. Through the CWS program, Federal grants are made to institutions of higher education to enable them to create job opportunities for eligible students. These grants provide 80% of the payroll expenses involved in the part-time and summer employment of the student, the remaining 20% is contributed by the institution or off-campus employing agency.

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[1] The Division of Student Financial Aid has since been incorporated along with the various Special Services programs into a Division of Student Assistance.

[2] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *College Work-Study Program Manual*, (Washington, D.C.: Printing Office, 1968) p. 1-1.

[3] An analysis of the Educational Opportunity Grant Program was completed by two of the authors and submitted to USOE in June 1971. See Friedman, N., and Thompson, J., *The Federal Educational Opportunity Grant Program: A Status Report, Fiscal Year 1970*, May 1971.

Objectives of the Study

In the summer of 1970, the BASR was awarded a contract by the U.S. Office of Education to study the CWS Program. The objectives of the study were to gain information about:

(1) The types of programs operating in different institutions

(2) The consequences of the program for:

  (a) Students

  (b) Institutions

  (c) Employing agencies

(3) The extent to which existing institutional channels and machinery at the national, regional and institutional levels have been effective in implementing and administering the program

(4) The extent to which the program is accomplishing its stated objectives of increasing the educational opportunities for students who might otherwise not attend college, attend only part-time, postpone college, or find their choice of college restricted by financial limitations.

Procedures of the Study

The following data have been collected:

(1) Questionnaires from 8,172 students enrolled in the CWS program during academic year 1970-71 (Response rate was 66%)

(2) Student characteristic forms from 795 aid officers, reporting information on 10,242 students (This represents 97% of the administrators responding for 83% of the CWS sample students)

(3) Questionnaires from 2006 participating institutions (82% response rate)

(4) Questionnaires from 2,232 employers of CWS students (58% response rate)

(5) Data from National Center for Educational Statistics, from Fiscal Operations Reports (FY 1969 and 1970) from Application Forms (FY 1971 and 1972) and from December Reports (calendar year 1969 and 1970)

(6) Qualitative data obtained through semi-structured interviews with administrators, employers, and students at 23 institutions and in two selected summer cooperative programs.

Findings

A. Student Characteristics (Chapters Two and Three)

(1) When viewed against the yardstick of national (ACE) norms for entering freshmen, CWS freshmen constitute a group from a distinctly lower socio-economic background and have proportionally almost three times as many students from minority backgrounds.

(2) Fifty-five percent of the CWS students come from families with annual incomes of less than $6000. On the other hand, for 18% the financial aid officer reports family incomes of $9000 or more. These latter tend to be white students enrolled at high-cost institutions, who carry a National Defense Student Loan (NDSL) or another type of loan, and whose parents are expected to contribute more than $850 on the average toward

college expenses.

(3) Income and ethnicity dramatically differentiate the demographic, academic, and attitudinal characteristics of CWS students. Exceptionally low-income/minority students are more likely than other CWS participants to:

- (a) Have grown up in a rural setting in a southern or border state
- (b) Be the first in the family to attend college
- (c) Have been enrolled in a non-college preparatory program in high school; have made a relatively late decision to attend college; or to state that the availability of financial aid was the primary consideration in their choice of a college
- (d) Have sought a college which would provide vocational preparation rather than intellectual challenge
- (e) Attend public institutions, especially the two-year community colleges.

(4) Compared with other CWS students, the lowest-income or minority students have equally high aspirations for educational and occupational attainment. They tend to be more certain than other CWS students about their occupational choice.

(5) On the average CWS earnings cover half of the basic expenses of attending college and in most instances such earnings are accompanied by an Educational Opportunity Grant (EOG) and/ or NDSL. Still, more than half of the student respondents

indicate that the total amount of financial aid they receive is insufficient to cover basic expenses. On the average, $625 additional is required--the amount varying for each income category and to a large degree reflecting the cost of attending college.

B. Institutions (Chapter Six)

(1) Differential participation in the three Federal programs (CWS, EOG and NDSL) reflects differing composition of student bodies and varying institutional cost.

(2) Compared with institutions participating in two or three programs, those with only a CWS program tend to:

(a) Find their CWS allocation adequate;

(b) Have a smaller CWS program;

(c) Offer financial aid to a smaller segment of the enrolled students but CWS employment to a higher percentage of eligible students.

(3) Six out of ten institutions report that their 1970-71 allocation was inadequate to provide employment for all eligible students. Proportionally, more than twice as many predominantly black as white institutions report four or five years of insufficient funding and at these chronically underfunded institutions, a smaller proportion of the eligible students is offered CWS employment. In general, the higher the proportion of low-income/minority students, the more likely is an institution to report chronic underfunding.

(4) The chronically underfunded institution is more likely to appeal the panel recommendation and to receive a supplemental allocation.

(5) Approximately half of the institutions, even those which do not report chronic underfunding, give preference to students who apply first.

(6) One-third of the institutions participating in CWS have no off-campus employment program. The data suggest that some schools are utilizing CWS as a means of maintaining normal operations in the face of rising costs and that such schools cannot afford to establish and administer an off-campus employment program.

(7) Comparison of institutions which do or do not maintain off-campus employment programs suggests that while the latter indeed may be handicapped by insufficient staff or geographical location, they anticipate encountering problems with which they may not be able to cope in maintaining an off-campus program.

C. Employers (Chapter Seven)

(1) More than four out of five employers of CWS students are of the opinion that students have developed useful skills and positive attitudes towards work as a result of CWS employment.

(2) Perceptions of the benefits of employment are highest among employers who are not closely associated with the CWS Coordinator, who have a great need for CWS workers, and who

provide jobs with a high level of skill and with relevance to academic or career interests of students.

(3) Employers are more likely to report that participation in the CWS program has enabled the agency or department to expand its operations if they:

  (a) Enjoy close and regular relations with the CWS coordinator

  (b) Have a high need for CWS students

  (c) Evaluate their CWS employees positively

  (d) Provide CWS students with relatively high skill-level or relevant employment

D. CWS Employment and Job Satisfaction (Chapters Four and Five)

(1) By far, the majority of CWS students (63%) are employed in clerical jobs or in positions as security, maintenance, food service, or hospitality aides. Only a small percentage (15%) are serving as social or community aides, teaching or research assistants, or government and judicial aides, even though these are the very positions which are most highly rated by students.

(2) On the whole, more than half of the students are very satisfied with their current CWS jobs; yet, half of those working would prefer holding a different job.

(3) Regardless of the job assignment, students agree that through CWS employment they have made friends and learned about people. Other advantages, such as becoming more certain about

their career choice or feeling they have been doing something useful, tend to be associated with specific types of jobs.

(4) Although a small proportion of students report that as a result of their jobs they have fallen behind in their classes, overall, CWS employment does not seem to be detrimental to keeping up with studies.

(5) The major contributor to student job satisfaction is the choice in selecting the job and arranging the hours--in short, whether the job a student holds is the one he prefers.

E. Funding (Chapters Eight and Nine)

(1) Establishing Demand

  (a) Observation of the panel reveiw process disclosed an essentially equitable arrangement for evaluating requests for federal student aid funds. Each panelist made a concerted effort to be fair in exercising judgment at all time.

  (b) The panel process has several unobtrusive consequences.

    (i) It provides an opportunity for both federal and regional officials to communicate directly with financial aid officers from divergent types of institutions;

    (ii) It creates intra-region relationships which facilitate exchanging knowledge of program management techniques based on a range of experience;

(iii) It serves as a platform for the personal clarification of an application submitted by a panel member.

(c) A reduction of the total request was in store for three out of five institutions contemplating an average award of $800 or more for each student expected to receive financial aid.

(d) Appealing a recommendation generally paid dividends. Seven out of eight were raised between 20% and 55%.

(2) Distribution of FY'72 Funds

(a) For the first time family income became the basis for funding the EOG-IY and CWS programs. The outcome was marked by both success and failure.

The higher the percentage of program funds forecast for distribution to these low-income students, the higher the proportion of the recommendation actually funded.

The funds appropriated by the Congress were not adequate to cover over 14% of the amount needed for initial year grants to these students. For the EOG-IY program as a whole, need exceeded funds by 35%.

For CWS, the appropriation did cover the federal contribution to the wages of students from families with incomes below $6000, but the amount was still 19% lower than total program need.

(b) Regional distribution was erratic. For the three DSFA programs taken as a whole:

(i) Three regions were 10% below the level of need.

(ii) One stood at the national average, 20% below need.

(iii) Six were more than 26% below approved need.

(3) Up and down the line, from the national, to the regional, state, and institutional levels runs the complaint that despite panel decisions and regardless of successful appeals, actual appropriations represent substantial cuts from panel approved amounts, and institutions are not able to meet the needs of eligible students. The chief casualty, of course, is the student who has counted on Federal assistance to help meet basic college expenses.

Conclusions

The major conclusion of this study is that the CWS program is achieving its primary goal of enabling students from low-income families to help defray the costs of post-secondary education with the earnings from part-time and summer employment. On the average CWS earnings are paying half of the basic costs of attending college--this is no small weight for one financial aid program to bear.

Over and above the financial benefits of CWS employment, a majority of students report maximum satisfaction from their CWS jobs and less than one in six is actually dissatisfied. Most feel that their jobs have helped them meet and learn to get along with people, and substantial proportions feel that they have gained useful skills and attitudes in the course of their CWS employment. In addition, many students are in employment settings which offer opportunities for extra hours of work or for summer employment at the employer's expense, or even for a permanent job after graduation.

For many employing agencies, the ability to use CWS students has meant expansion of agency operations--an effect fully congruent with legislative intent. Still another effect of the CWS program--not to be lightly dismissed in these days when post-secondary institutions are fighting for survival--is that for many schools, hiring CWS students has meant the ability to maintain normal operations in the face of rising costs.

These then, are the "pluses" of the CWS program. At the same time, it should be noted that many students are spending up to fifteen hours a week at jobs which are routine and yield little in the form of long-range benefits. Similarly, many institutions are not effectively utilizing the program to accomplish the objectives of educating students and preparing them for productive futures.

Generally, however, financial aid administrators--together with employers--are actively attempting to provide students with work that goes far beyond the provision of tuition dollars. Despite chronic insufficiency of funds, despite the administrative uncertainties and complexities, some schools are successfully placing students in interesting responsible challanging jobs--both on- and off-campus--jobs which link student and professor, which create feelings of worthwhileness, which support community action programs, which offer students an opportunity for future employment.

It is this minority of administrators which points out most clearly the direction which CWS programming can take in the future. In this way, it can do more than provide dollars, more than create leaf-rakers or clerks for institutions of higher education, but can serve as a means of education for life.

NOTES ON METHODOLOGY

Section A. The Samples

I. Institutions

The study design requested by the Bureau of Higher Education, U.S. Office of Education called for the selection of a sample of approximately 15,000 students from the 1970-71 academic year CWS participants. A review of the distribution among the participating institutions revealed that over one-half of the students in the CWS Program were expected to be in only 283 (11.6%) of the institutions of higher education, while 18% of the students would be spread throughout 1618 (66.3%) of the institutions.

Such a skewed distribution means that a heavy investment of government funds is concentrated in relatively few program operations. To reflect this fact, and at the same time assure proportional representation of the students, the sampling plan included some students from each school providing jobs for 300 or more CWS participants, from every other school with only 100-299 CWS students, and from every sixth institution with less than 100 program participants. In all, 820 institutions were selected: all the 283 large program schools, 257 of the 514 medium, and 269 of the 1618 small program schools. The sample of institutions was used exclusively for the selection of student

TABLE 1

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF INSTITUTIONS IN THE CWS UNIVERSE AND OF SAMPLE INSTITUTIONS BY SIZE OF CWS PROGRAM

Selected Characteristics	Small Program		Medium Program		All Large Program Schools
	CWS Universe	Sample	CWS Universe	Sample	
Type/Control					
Private university	2.2%	1.5%	6.8%	5.2%	8.1%
Public university	1.4	.7	8.5	8.2	36.4
Private four-year	37.1	33.6	28.5	27.5	14.5
Public four-year	5.1	6.7	21.4	19.0	31.8
Private two-year	17.4	15.7	6.7	6.7	1.1
Public two-year	36.7	41.8	28.1	33.5	8.1
Racial Composition					
Predominantly white	98.7%	98.9%	90.6%	90.7%	85.2%
Predominantly black	1.3	1.1	9.4	9.3	14.8
Federal Region [a]					
I	8.1%	8.2%	5.9%	5.9%	3.5%
II	12.0	11.2	9.8	10.0	11.3
III	12.3	12.3	11.8	11.5	10.2
IV	18.2	18.6	24.2	24.9	21.9
V	19.2	19.0	15.3	15.2	16.2
VI	6.9	7.1	11.3	11.5	14.8
VII	7.2	7.5	2.6	1.9	3.5
VIII	3.8	3.7	3.9	3.7	5.7
IX	9.0	9.0	10.5	10.4	9.9
X	3.3	3.4	4.6	4.8	2.8
Number of Schools	(1618)	(268)	(541)	(269)	(283)

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[a] The states comprising each region appear in Appendix B.

and employer samples. Every one of the almost 2400 institutions participating in the CWS Program was invited to contribute to the research, however, by completing a questionnaire.

Table 1 compares the characteristics of the small- and medium-program sample schools with all small- and medium-program CWS schools and reveals the strong resemblance between sample institutions and those in the CWS universe. Private four-year institutions are perhaps slightly underrepresented, and public two-year schools slightly over-represented in the sample. There are no regional differences, however, and predominantly black institutions appear in the sample exactly in the same proportion as in the universe of CWS schools.

II. The Student Sample

The financial aid officer at each sample school was asked to provide the names and addresses of all students enrolled in the CWS program during Fall Semester 1970-71. Only 25 financial aid officers failed to comply with this request and a student sample was then drawn from the remaining 795 institutions in the following manner:

CWS Program Size	Student Sampling Proportion	Number Students in Sample
Large	0.04	6,109
Medium	0.09	4,044
Small	0.23	2,261
TOTAL	0.04	12,414

It is apparent, as can be seen in Table 2, that this two-stage sampling procedure yielded a sample fairly similar to the CWS universe. The slight overrepresentation of students from schools with medium-sized programs and underrepresentation from those with large programs may simply be the result of the fact that the figures in the first column of Table 2 are themselves estimates.

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF CWS STUDENTS IN THE UNIVERSE AND IN THE SAMPLE BY SIZE OF CWS PROGRAM

Size of CWS Program	CWS Universe		Sample	
	Estimated Number of Students in Program[a]	Percent	Number of Students	Percent
Small	55,728	18%	2,261	18%
Medium	83,700	27	4,044	33
Large	170,514	55	6,109	49
TOTAL	(309,942)	100%	(12,414)	100%

[a] Estimate is based on projected number of awards presented in *Notification to Members of Congress,* WS Report No. 31, 1970.

III. Employer Sample

A listing of all employers or supervisors of CWS students was obtained from each of the sample schools, with the exception of the 25 who did not respond. These lists contained the names and addresses of approximately 23,000 employers, the approximate number of students under their supervision, together with an indication of whether the employment was located on- or off-campus. A sample of employers was drawn from these lists as follows:[1]

Location of Employment	Sampling Proportion	Number in Sample
On-campus	.085	2,181
Off-campus	.333	1,472
Location not Specified		18

The decision to sample off-campus employers more heavily was taken in response to USOE's expressed interest in shifting the emphasis in the CWS program to off-campus employment. While speaking in Atlanta on June 30, 1969, Dr. James E. Allen, then Assistant Secretary for Education and U.S. Commissioner of Education stated:

> *"One (problem) is how to get more of the students involved in the Work-Study programs off the campus, into the community. We would like to see the ratio of on-campus to off-campus work reversed, with the majority working off-campus instead of the opposite situation which prevails now."*[2]

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[1] Before drawing the sample of on- and off-campus employers, the entire list of names was categorized into six groups, according to the type and control of the institution with which employment was associated. This ensured an adequate representation of employers from each of the six kinds of institutions.

[2] Quoted in memorandum from Warren T. Troutman, Chief, Work-Study Branch, Division of Student Financial Aid, Bureau of Higher Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, September, 1969.

Section B. The Data

When the study began (July 1, 1970) there were 2374 institutions of higher education and an estimated 330,000 students participating in the CWS program.[3] The following outline delineates the data that have been collected from institutions, students, and employers, as well as from other sources for the analysis of the operation of this large-scale student financial aid program.

I. Institutional Data

1. Mailed Questionnaire
    a. Background Information
        1) History of CWS Program
        2) Enrollment
        3) Estimated financial aid recipients
    b. CWS Program
        1) Statistics
            a) Students employed
            b) Job classifications
            c) Hourly wages
            d) Hours of work
            e) Employers involved
        2) Administration
            a) Procedures, policies, problems
            b) Personnel
            c) Summer program
            d) Off-campus program
        3) Assessment
    c. Institutional employment program

---

[3] These figures are based on the *Notification to Members of Congress* WS Report No. 31 and Supplements 1-4.

I. Institutional Data (Continued)

- 2. Federal Reporting Forms
  - a. Fiscal Operations Report: FY 1969 and FY 1970
    - 1) Summary of total involvement in three DSFA programs
    - 2) CWS specific information
      - a) Number of students enrolled
      - b) Number receiving other types DSFA assistance
      - c) Student characteristics
        - (1) Race or ethnic group
        - (2) Gross family income
        - (3) Class level
        - (4) Support classification
        - (5) Job location
      - d) Off-campus employer listing
  - b. Application Forms: FY 1972
    - 1) Summary data
      - a) Amount requested for operation of each of three DSFA programs
      - b) Full-time enrollment
      - c) College related costs
        - (1) Tuition and fees
        - (2) Room and Board or commuter allowance
      - d) Institutional financial commitment to student support
      - e) Estimated distribution of students by family income level
    - 2) CWS program request
      - a) Expected number of students
      - b) Anticipated work location
      - c) Federal support required
  - c. December Reports: Calendar years 1969 and 1970
    - 1) CWS expenditures January 1 through December 31, 1969 and 1970
    - 2) Year-end financial status of program
    - 3) Federal share of on and off-campus employment costs
    - 4) Number of students employed on- or off-campus
- 3. Master Data Record
  - a. U,S, Office of Education
    - 1) President's list of participating institutions
      - a) DSFA program activity
      - b) Racial composition of school
      - c) Type based on highest degree granted
      - d) Control

I. Institutional Data

3. Master Data Record

a. U.S. Office of Education (Continued)

2) Statistical Work Sheet

a) Percentage allocation to each state July 1, 1970
b) Percentage allocation to each state Jan 1, 1971

3) National Center for Educational Statistics

a) Education Directory, 1970-71

(1) Program offering
(2) Religious affiliation
(3) Highest degree awarded
(4) Sex of student body

b) Opening Fall Enrollment, 1970

(1) Total number male students
(2) Total number female students

4) *Notification to Members of Congress*, WS Report No. 31

a) Estimated number CWS participants 1970-71
b) Federal allocation

II. Student Data

1. Mailed Questionnaire

a. Background information

1) Demographic data
2) Academic history
3) Employment experience
4) Current class level

b. Financial aid components

c. CWS employment

1) Job description
2) Hours and wages
3) Working environment
4) Performance assessment

d. Attitudes and opinions

1) College in general
2) Financial aid
3) CWS Program

e. Educational aspirations

f. Career plans

II. Student Data (Continued)

2. Student Characteristic Form completed by financial aid officer

   a. Gross family income
   b. Expected parental contribution
   c. Federal financial aid for academic year

      1) CWS earnings
      2) Amount of EOG
      3) Size of NDSL
      4) Accumulative grade-point average
      5) Ethnicity

III. Employer Data

1. Mailed Questionnaire

   a. Background information

      1) Agency description
      2) CWS program history
      3) Personal attributes

   b. Administration of CWS Program

      1) Communication with CWS Coordinator
      2) Soliciting students
      3) Employment conditions

         a) Wages and hours
         b) Job description
         c) Training practices
         d) Turnover

      4) Records and maintenance
      5) Assessment

   c. Attitudes and opinions regarding

      1) College
      2) Students as employees

IV. Additional Sources of Data

1. Bureau of Applied Social Research College Data Bank: Data collected in 1970 from approximately 1800 institutions and 12,500 students participating in the Educational Opportunity Grant Program. These questionnaires provide information on:

   a. Recruitment and supportive programs
   b. Institutional costs and enrollments; admissions criteria

IV. Additional Sources of Data

1. Bureau of Applied Social Research College Data Bank (Continued)

    c. Problems, procedures and policies in the administration of the Educational Opportunity Grant Program

    d. Institutional assessment of the Educational Opportunity Grant Program

    e. Demographic, academic and attitudinal data on

        1) 12,500 Educational Opportunity Grant recipients, 1969-70 academic year

        2) 5,000 College Work Study participants, 1969-70

    Obtaining information from the above source has enabled comparison of the characteristics, problems, and successes of students and institutions participating in CWS with those in EOG.

2. Case studies

    To permit observation of the College Work-Study program in operation, 23 schools (selected by National Center for Educational Statistics of U. S. Office of Education) were visited. The visits provide depth to the study unobtainable through survey techniques alone. In addition to the field observations at each institution, data were obtained through interviews with the administrator of the College Work-Study program, the director of recruitment or other special program; the fiscal officer; both on-campus and off-campus employers of CWS students; and students themselves. Also included in the case studies were Urban Corps and Summer Employment in Texas, two multi-institutional cooperative programs which provide off-campus summer employment for CWS students. Qualitative material was obtained in these areas:

    a. CWS Program administration

        1) Procedures and policies
        2) Problems and satisfactions
        3) Assessment of impact
            a) Institution
            b) Students
        4) Recommendations for improvement

IV. Additional Sources of Data

2. Case studies (Continued)

    b. Financial management

        1) Applying for funds
        2) Federal distributions

            a) Timing
            b) Channels

        3) Payroll records

3. Funding process

    The data for this segment of the study were obtained from three major sources: forms submitted to USOE by participating institutions,[4] observation of panels reviewing these forms, and interviews with program officials in Washington and each of the ten regional offices. The following information has been compiled:

    a. Characteristics of participating institutions
    b. Funds requested for DSFA programs
    c. Panel system of review

        1) Case-load
        2) Criteria for evaluating requests
        3) Recommendation determination
        4) Appealing decision

    d. Allocation of federal funds

        1) Legislative authorization
        2) Determination of awards
        3) Notification of institutions

    e. Administrative constraints
    f. Assessment of current DSFA practice
    g. Recommendations for improvement

4. Intensive follow-up of non-responding students

    a. Mailed questionnaire

        1) Background information
        2) Financial aid
        3) CWS employment

    b. Telephone interview

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[4] The forms include the Fiscal Operations Report for FY 1970 and the Application Form for FY 1972 described in Parts I.2.a and I.2.b in this chapter.

Section C. The Response

In March, 1971 over 12,000 questionnaires were mailed to the sample of students and 2400 to institutions participating in the CWS Program. In addition, Student Characteristic Forms were sent to each of the schools from which the sample of students had been drawn. In April, the 3600 employers were mailed questionnaires. At this time, follow-up questionnaires were sent to approximately 7000 students and 1300 institutional administrators who had not responded. In early June each of the 2000 non-responding employers was sent a second questionnaire. During June and July letters were sent to non-responding institutions. Furthermore, telephone calls were made to over 200 aid administrators who had failed to return either questionnaires or Student Characteristic Forms by the stated deadline of July 1, 1971.

I. Institutions

The response to the original mailing and subsequent follow-up activities for the three groups are presented in the next series of tables. Starting with Table 3, it is apparent that 82% of the institutions responded to the questionnaire.[5] This high response rate is attributed primarily to the extensive mail and telephone effort; the project staff spent many weeks answering questions or offering reassurance to program administrators who sought clarification of items or who questioned their right to reveal confidential information. Most objections hinged upon the principle of "invasion of privacy", while other aid officers simply registered complaints about the amount of time required to complete the questionnaire and Student Characteristic Forms.

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[5] This is extremely close to the 84% achieved a year earlier by the EOG Study. The researchers were gratified by the CWS response; it had been feared that institutional respondents completing a long questionnaire for the EOG study would be reluctant to do so again. In addition, others have been far less successful in gaining cooperation. See e.g. Kitano, H. and Miller, D. *An Assessment of Educational Opportunity Programs in California Higher Education,* Scientific Analysis Corp., California, 1970 which elicited only a 60% institutional response.

The high overall institutional response rate masks the differential response rate for selected types of institutions. A closer review of the table shows that smallness--be it size of school or program--tends to have a depressing effect on the response rate. In particular, less than one-half of the 127 proprietary schools chose to participate in the study. Considering the fact that close to one hundred of these schools fall in the private two-year class, the magnitude of the response gap between this class and each of the others is not surprising.

Public institutions responded somewhat more frequently than those in the private sector. This may be a function of the implied program commitment of the larger size schools and of their having the personnel and machinery available to meet the general reporting requirements imposed on tax supported institutions. Administrators in predominantly black institutions responded at almost the same rate as their counterparts in predominantly white schools.[6]

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[6] This was somewhat unexpected, since black institutional response rates in other studies have been relatively low. A. Jaffe, W. Adams, and S. G. Meyers, *Negro Higher Education in the 1960's*, Praeger, New York, 1968, pp. 223-25.

TABLE 3

INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSE RATES BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Characteristics	Number of Institutions	Response Rate
All Schools	2,442	82.1%
Sample School		
Yes	820	85.0
No	1,622	80.7
Program Size		
Small	1,618	79.8
Medium	541	87.4
Large	283	85.5
Enrollment		
Under 500	431	79.8
500 - 999	544	82.2
1000 - 1999	484	85.3
2000 - 4999	384	84.9
5000 or more	285	88.1
Type/Control		
Private university	96	85.4
Public university	171	86.6
Private four-year	795	82.3
Public four-year	289	85.5
Private two-year	321	67.3
Public two-year	768	85.8
Racial Composition		
Predominantly white	2,326	82.3
Predominantly black	114	79.8
Sex		
Male	53	73.6
Female	89	76.4
Coeducational	1,937	84.4

Table 3--Continued

Selected Characteristics	Number of Institutions	Response Rate
Federal Region		
I	173	83.2%
II	280	70.7
III	292	84.6
IV	487	84.0
V	440	80.9
VI	214	84.1
VII	141	87.9
VIII	98	88.8
IX	230	79.6
X	87	89.7

Finally, examination of the response rates by Federal Region reveals a variation from a low of 71% in Region II to a high of 90% in Region X. In conversations with financial aid officers from Region II, many program administrators expressed concern about confidentiality and were reluctant to complete the questionnaire or Student Characteristic Form.[7]

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[7] These personal contacts were made by one of the authors while attending a conference of the New York State Financial Aid Administrators Association, November 1971.

II. Students

The assessment of the student response presents the first opportunity to compare the 1970 federal financial aid recipient with the one from 1969. Only 66% of the 1970 CWS students returned their questionnaires, but the return rate figure had reached 78% for the EOG recipients a year earlier. As the analysis proceeds, the differences will mount; but the primary one is worthy of note here. The type of aid received is not equivalent--the EOG student receives a grant while the CWS students works for his money. The high response rate in the EOG study may reflect fear of a curtailed or lost grant if the questionnaires were not completed.[8] The CWS student seems to have exercised a greater degree of independence than his EOG counterpart. Superficially, he appears to be not only less compliant but also more concerned about the protection of his privacy. The identifying labels attached to the questionnaires were removed three times as often by the CWS students as by the EOG students the year before.

The response rates for CWS students enrolled in different types of institutions are presented in Table 4. Interestingly, the location or characteristic of the institution affects the student response rate somewhat differently from that of the financial aid officer. While program size was positively related to institutional response rate, the relationship is reversed for the students, with a slightly higher rate

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[8] This assumption is based on the number of notes and marginal comments received from the EOG respondents. Many students thanked the researchers for their grants or entered pleas for additional money.

TABLE 4

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE RATE BY SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Institutional Characteristics	Number of Sample Students	Student Response Rate
All Schools	12,414	65.8%[a]
Program Size		
Small	2,261	68.9
Medium	4,044	64.9
Large	6,109	65.3
Type/Control		
Private University	782	64.1
Public University	2,746	67.6
Private Four-Year	2,659	69.7
Public Four-Year	2,965	66.5
Private Two-Year	477	66.0
Public Two-Year	2,785	60.1
Racial Composition of Institution		
Predominantly White	11,134	66.9
Predominantly Black	1,280	56.7
Federal Region		
1	716	66.1
2	1,194	57.7
3	1,178	65.4
4	2,636	68.1
5	2,077	69.6
6	1,568	65.7
7	710	64.9
8	654	69.3
9	1,204	59.6
10	477	71.1

[a] This percentage includes the 7830 students responding to the regular questionnaire and 342 students responding to the intensive follow-up questionnaire.

noted for students from small program schools than either medium or large program schools. When students are classified by the type and control of the institution they attend, it can be seen that the lowest response rate is recorded for students in public two-year schools quite unlike the record established by the administrators from these schools. But the sharpest difference among the students exists between those from predominantly white and predominantly black institutions. Students in the black schools fall ten percentage points behind the other group in the return rate for complete questionnaires. In the next section, the difference in students' response rates is elucidated when personal characteristics of the CWS students are examined.

III. Employers

The employers depict a unique response pattern in that they diverge from those of both the students and institutions. As shown in Table 5, their overall response rate is 58%. Employers associated with large scale CWS program schools are most likely to have responded. The difference in rate noted for those on- and off-campus may be a function of the greater likelihood of successful questionnaire delivery to a campus address. Two out of three questionnaires were returned by the employers associated with programs at university level institutions. Those affiliated with private schools have the poorest record and the

TABLE 5

EMPLOYER QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE RATE
BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Characteristics	Number of Employers	Response Rate
All Employers	3,671	57.6%
Type/Control		
Private University	313	66.8
Public University	1,045	69.8
Private Four-Year	659	42.0
Public Four-Year	869	54.8
Private Two-Year	125	50.4
Public Two-Year	650	55.5
Location of Job		
On-Campus	2,181	57.9
Off-Campus	1,472	51.0
Size of CWS Program		
Small	384	57.6
Medium	992	57.9
Large	2,295	62.6
Federal Region		
1	317	51.1
2	243	70.8
3	355	59.6
4	657	51.6
5	721	65.0
6	387	56.6
7	196	61.1
8	157	64.3
9	381	63.8
10	133	77.4

response rate is markedly low for employers working with students from the four-year schools. While Region II has the lowest student and institutional response rates, employers in this region registered a 71% rate--surpassed only by the ones in Region X who reached 77%.

IV. Packet Schools

Twenty-five institutions (3% of the sample schools) did not comply with our request for the names and addresses of CWS students and employers. The program administrator at each school was sent a package containing questionnaires, student characteristic forms, and instructions for selecting the samples and distributing the materials. In all, 590 student questionnaires and 268 employer questionnaires were processed in this manner.

It is impossible to determine the true response rate for these packet schools since an exact accounting of the distribution at each school is not available. However, the return rates based upon these projections are much lower than the ones recorded for questionnaires received in response to mail personally addressed from research headquarters.[9]

Type of Form	Number of Forms Sent	Number Forms Completed	Response Rate
Institutional Questionnaires	25	16	64%
Student Characteristic Forms	25	14	56
Student Questionnaires	590	175	30
Employer Questionnaires	268	116	43

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[9] None of the forms sent to five of these schools was ever returned. As a consequence they are not represented in the data files prepared by Bureau of Applied Social Research.

Section D. Response Bias

The preceding section has documented the differential student, institutional, and employer response rates by selected institutional characteristics. An attempt has been made to account for some of the differences revealed in Tables 3, 4, and 5. In this section the characteristics of non-responding institutions and students[10] are compared in order to determine the extent to which non-response reduces the generalizability of the findings.

I. Institutions[11]

Table 6 permits a comparison of responding and non-responding institutions. It is clear that small-program schools and schools with small student bodies are somewhat underrepresented in the sample, as are private two-year institutions and schools from Region II. In later chapters, most data for institutions will be presented separately for schools with varying characteristics, and it is not expected that the underrepresentation of a particular type of institution will alter the interpretation of the findings.

II. Students

It was pointed out in Section I that data on each student in the sample was requested from the financial aid officer at the sample institutions. These data make it possible to compare the characteristics of student respondents and non-respondents. These two groups can, in turn,

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[10] Since no attempt was made to draw a sample of employers which would be representative of the universe, the subsequent discussion does not deal with employers.

[11] Data on non-responding institutions is drawn from the Master Data Record described on pages 19-20.

TABLE 6

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SELECTED
CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDING AND
NON-RESPONDING INSTITUTIONS

Selected Characteristics	All CWS Institutions	Responding Institutions	Non-Reponding Institutions
Program Size			
Small	66.2%	64.4%	75.0%
Medium	22.2	23.6	15.6
Large	11.6	12.1	9.4
Sex			
Male	2.5	2.2	4.2
Female	4.3	3.9	6.2
Coeducational	93.2	93.8	89.6
1970 Enrollment			
Under 500	20.2	19.3	25.1
500-999	25.6	25.1	28.0
1000-1999	22.7	23.2	20.2
2000-4999	18.0	18.3	16.8
5000 or more	13.4	14.1	9.8
Federal Region			
1	7.1	7.2	6.6
2	11.5	9.9	18.8
3	12.0	12.3	10.3
4	19.9	20.4	17.9
5	18.0	17.7	19.3
6	8.8	9.0	7.8
7	5.8	6.2	3.9
8	4.0	4.3	2.5
9	9.4	9.1	10.8
10	3.6	3.9	2.1
Type/Control			
Private University	3.9	4.1	3.2
Public University	7.0	7.4	5.3
Private Four-Year	32.6	32.6	32.5
Public Four-Year	11.8	12.3	9.7
Private Two-Year	13.2	10.8	24.1
Public Two-Year	31.5	32.8	25.1
Racial Composition			
Predominantly White	95.3	95.5	94.7
Predominantly Black	4.7	4.5	5.3
Number of Schools	(2,442)	(2,006)	(436)

be compared with a special 10% subsample (544 students) that was drawn to elicit further comparative information for assessing the representativeness of the sample and the presence of response bias. This subsample was intensively followed through the mail and in the event of failure, direct telephone contact was established. The effort was gratifying in that 63% of the contacts were successfully completed.

Table 7, Parts A and B compare the three groups of students in three respects:

1. Characteristics of schools in which they are enrolled
2. Family background characteristics
3. Federal student financial aid received.

Part A of Table 7 shows the minimal differences among the institutional affiliations of these students. A slightly higher percentage of non-respondents attend public two-year schools or those classified as predominantly black institutions, but none of the differences is striking.

Similarly, Part B of Table 7 reveals a higher percentage of blacks in the follow-up than in the original sample. Aside from this, the lack of contrast among the three distributions is the outstanding feature of the table. The follow-up subsample is a compromise between the other two groups; at one point resembling the respondent group more closely; at others, the non-respondent group. In general, non-respondents are somewhat more likely than either of the respondent groups to:

1. Come from families with annual incomes of less than $3000
2. Expect no financial assistance from their parents

TABLE 7

Part A

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS
OF RESPONDENTS, INTENSIVE FOLLOW-UP SAMPLE,
AND NON-RESPONDENTS

Institutional Characteristics	Respondents	Intensive Follow-Up	Non-Respondents
Type/Control			
Private University	4.6%	5.0%	5.5%
Public University	23.4	22.4	22.0
Private Four-Year	22.3	20.6	20.1
Public Four-Year	25.7	25.6	24.3
Private Two-Year	3.1	3.7	3.1
Public Two-Year	20.8	22.7	24.9
Racial Composition			
Predominantly White	90.8	86.3	87.3
Predominantly Black	9.2	13.7	12.7
Federal Region			
1	5.7	5.8	5.2
2	6.1	6.9	9.1
3	8.8	9.7	9.5
4	21.1	22.7	22.2
5	18.3	13.7	15.0
6	13.5	15.2	13.5
7	7.0	7.2	5.6
8	6.0	3.2	4.9
9	8.5	10.8	10.7
10	5.0	4.7	4.3
Number of Students[a]	(6,229)	(277)	(3,543)

[a] These totals represent the number of students in each category for whom financial aid office information had been supplied.

TABLE 7

Part B

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS
OF RESPONDENTS, INTENSIVE FOLLOW-UP SAMPLE,
AND NON-RESPONDENTS

Student Characteristics	Respondents	Intensive Follow-Up	Non-Respondents
Ethnicity			
Black	19.4%	27.6%	30.7%
White	71.3	63.0	60.2
Other Minority	9.3	9.4	9.1
Gross Family Income			
Under $3000	22.2	25.8	28.0
$3000 - $5999	30.5	32.0	31.9
$6000 - $7499	16.1	14.4	14.8
$7500 - $8999	12.9	9.4	9.6
$9000 or more	18.2	18.3	15.7
Expected Parental Contribution			
None	51.5	51.6	58.1
Under $400	18.2	17.1	15.8
$400 - $699	14.1	16.7	12.0
$700 - $999	8.9	7.7	7.5
$1000 or more	7.3	6.9	6.6
Mean CWS Earnings (1970-71)	$608	$623	$610
Mean EOG (1970-71)	$562	$514	$582
Mean GPA	2.59	2.47	2.41
Number of Students [a]	(6,229)	(277)	(3,543)

[a] These totals represent the number of students in each category for whom financial aid office information had been supplied.

3. Receive a slightly higher Educational Opportunity Grant
4. Have a little lower Grade Point Average (GPA)

As noted earlier, close to one in three of these non-responding students is Black, compared with one out of five respondents. As a consequence, much of the subsequent student data are presented separately for the various ethnic groups.

While techniques are available for manipulating data to compensate for bias (for differences between respondents and non-respondents), it is still interesting to determine whether respondents are in fact different from the universe of clients participating in the CWS Program during the 1969-70 academic year. Such a comparison can be made, using the ethnic background variable, between the respondents and all CWS participants enumerated on the Fiscal Operations Report FY 1970. Table 8 indicates that while the ethnic background of respondents and non-respondents may differ, the respondents themselves do in fact closely approximate the characteristics of the CWS universe for FY 1970.

In other words, the bias is introduced by the selective reporting inherent in the data submitted by the financial aid officers. The bias is eradicated when the students are allowed to speak for themselves. Therefore, in subsequent chapters when the term 'CWS student' is used in reference to the questionnaire respondent group, it will be with a fair degree of confidence that the statement truly applies to that particular sector.

TABLE 8

RACE AND ETHNIC BACKGROUND OF SELECTED GROUPS OF RESPONDENTS AND OF ALL 1969-70 CWS STUDENTS

Race or Ethnic Group	Student Characteristic Form Sample	Matched FAO/CWS Sample	All Student Questionnaire Respondents	1969-70 CWS Student Universe
Black	23.4%	19.4%	18.1%	20.5%
Indian	.4	.4	.8	.5
Oriental	.9	1.0	1.4	1.1
Spanish, Mexican-American, Puerto Rican	4.2	4.5	4.7	4.4
White or Other	70.1	74.7	75.1	73.4
No Answer	(577)	(278)	(224)	-
TOTAL	(10,242)	(6,229)	(7,830)	(413,193)[a]

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[a] Total number of students in Table 2 (309,942) is an estimated figure derived by USOE, while the total appearing above (413,193) is obtained from reports on the actual number of recipients submitted by the institutions.

CHAPTER ONE

THE SETTING

Abstract

The three sections in this chapter summarize observations from 23 field visits to institutions participating in the Federal College Work-Study Program. Section A outlines the case study procedures and reviews the characteristics of the institutions. Section B molds these characteristics into three general types of institutions which differ in both extent and content of supportive services available for the low-income/minority student. The Type One institution has not been able to make a firm commitment to these students with relatively high levels of need because of the increasing demand for funds among its predominantly middle-income students to meet the rising cost of education; the Type Two school has recently begun to recruit students who might not be able to enroll without the assurance of academic or financial assistance; and Type Three has traditionally enrolled a high proportion of financially needy youth, but it is currently confronted by a larger number of students with distinct financial problems and varying academic ability. In Section C, attention turns to the problem of coordinating the Work-Study program with the other supportive programs and of reconciling the conflicting goals of the diverse groups in each of these settings.

CHAPTER ONE

THE SETTING

As the preceding "Notes on Methodology" has indicated, a great deal of quantitative information has been gathered from students, financial aid officers and employers, as well as from the various forms on which institutions apply for and report the expenditures of federal aid funds. The large part of this report will be devoted to a description and analysis of these data.

Not infrequently, large masses of "hard" data leave readers (and perhaps researchers as well) struggling to interpret results to discover underlying trends, and to establish order and coherency among discrete findings. In recent years, a new methodological approach, which attempts to alleviate some of these problems has been gaining advocates. This approach combines in a single study the two traditions of survey methods and field work--the former involving the collection of hard, quantitative data, the latter the gathering of qualitative, in-depth information.[1] The combined use of field work and survey methods enables the researcher to utilize insights obtained from field interviews as leads for the analysis of the quantitative data. At the same time, if the timing of the field work permits, questions raised during the course of the data analysis can be probed in subsequent field work.[2]

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[1] Sam D. Sieber, "The Integration of Field Work and Survey Methods," Bureau of Applied Social Research, 1969 (mimeo).

The design of the current study allowed for a series of site visits to twenty-one institutions and two cooperative employment programs. During these visits, a wealth of information was collected from college aid officers, administrators of special programs, CWS students and employers, and other pertinent administrators. Ideally, these field visits should both precede and follow the data analysis, for insights gained in the field can provide leads for the analysis of the quantitative data, while the analysis may raise questions which subsequent in-depth interviews can clarify.

In this study, the field work preceded the analysis and was all but completed before the analysis of data had started. Accordingly, there was no opportunity to utilize the site visits in order to answer questions raised in the analysis. There were, however, many instances in which insights gleaned during the field work provided leads for the actual analysis. Discussions with students about the problems of meeting college costs, for example, led to the analysis (in Chapter Three) of CWS as a percent of total college costs. Similarly, interviews with employers yielded evidence that some jobs were providing an unanticipated bonus in the form of extra or even permanent employment for CWS students. This resulted in the analysis of the "employment potential" of the CWS job (Chapter Seven), while hours spent with aid administrators stimulated the analysis of "chronic insufficiency" of funding (Chapter Six).

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[2] Sieber, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

In these and other instances, the field work served as a stimulus for the subsequent analysis. This chapter attempts to organize the voluminous information gained in the course of the site visits in a manner which will provide a setting for the chapters to follow. Typical schools in which CWS operates will be described and the kinds of problems aid officers face in administering the program will be presented. Hopefully this will provide a general overview after which the reader can then proceed to the quantitative data.

A. Institutional Characteristics and Field Work Procedures

This section outlines the characteristics of the twenty-three insitutions (including two summer programs) selected by U.S. Office of Education for site visits. Work-Study programs operate in a range of settings from small uniform environments in which researchers met nearly all administrative decision-makers, to "multiversity" settings in which contacts were largely limited to "middle management" personnel.

In the small institution, the administrator is typically involved in many functional areas over and above the sphere of Work-Study; in the large setting, no single administrator handles the CWS program. Understanding the consequences of diffuse administrative responsibilities in the small setting, and of narrowed specialization in the large is a distinct challenge for field researchers.

The twenty-three case study institutions include thirteen public, eight private, and two summer cooperative programs.[3] The institutions studied also differ by type -- that is, by the level of offerings and For instance, 8 universities, 8 four-year institutions, and 7 two-year schools fell into the case study sample. While distinctions between the two-year, four-year, and university settings can hardly be overlooked, institutional control is a more sensitive indicator of the financial underpinning and attendant cost pressures operating on the institution and affecting its CWS programming.

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[3] Within the public and private sectors the following divisions obtained:

Public Control: Local (3) Local and State (1) State (9) = (13)
Private Control: Denominational (3) Independent non-profit (4)
Profit-making (1) = (8)
Cooperative Programs (2)

The twenty-three case study institutions are located in sixteen states and eight of the ten DHEW regions.[4] While it is not stipulated that the twenty-three case studies constitute a representative sampling of the approximately 2400 participating CWS institutions, it is obvious that there is no excessive concentration of visits to any one state, region, or institutional type.[5]

Whatever the institutional or geographic setting, the officially designated Work-Study Coordinator is usually the initial contact, primary informant, and gatekeeper to other contacts at the institution. Coordinators were asked to arrange meetings with other college administrators, Work-Study employers, and students. Researchers requested that appointments be set up with key administrators such as the financial aid director, fiscal officer of the institution, business or fiscal officer, and administrator of special programs for low income/minority students or of other programs in which Work-Study students are involved.

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[4] Case Study Institutions by state:

Alabama	1	Kentucky	1	California	2
Arkansas	1	Montana	1	Ohio	2
Colorado	1	North Carolina	1	Mississippi	2
Florida	1	Tennessee	1	New York	2
Idaho	1	Massachusetts	3	Texas	2
Illinois	1				

[5] In addition to the 23 case studies undertaken during 1971-72, fifteen site visits made by the same research team during 1970-71 yielded much information and insight into the operation of CWS program. (See Friedman and Thompson, *op. cit.*, Ch. 6.)

Somewhat greater freedom was left to Coordinators in selecting Work-Study employers to be visited. Some case study institutions had made available lists of all off-campus employers (with agency names, number of students employed, and addresses). These were used to choose apparently interesting work sites for study and to avoid selection of "showcase" programs by Coordinators.

The selection of students for interviews during the site visits was fairly unstructured. Some students were recruited by Coordinators from among those working in or around administrative offices at the time the researchers were free to see them. Others were interviewed during visits to off-campus employment sites. No attempt was made to sample representatively from among the CWS students since the questionnaire phase of the study provides data collected from a representative sample of students from the CWS population.

Separate interview guides were prepared for CWS Coordinators, business/fiscal officers, administrators of special programs, employers, and students. Semi-structured in form, these schedules were readily adapted to local situations or specialized roles. About one-quarter of all interview time was spent with CWS Coordinators, an equal amount of time was spent with all other administrators, and the other half of the visit was devoted to interviewing employers and students. The total staff time devoted to a site visit varied from two to four man days, exclusive of travel time, preparations for the visits, and writing up of field reports.

B. Three Profiles

This section collates material from the institutional visits and formulates composite profiles of three typical CWS program settings which possess direct relevance to program operations and their impact on students. The three types delineated are not pure types. Rather they are abstract, analytical constructs, each one representing a composite of salient, program-relevant characteristics. No single institution, in other words, contains all of the qualities ascribed to any single type but all schools tend to resemble one type over the other two.

Type One

This college is typified by the small private institution which may still maintain religious ties, although there is little direct evidence--at least to the outsider--of a religious atmosphere on campus. Students with varying interests, but from relatively homogeneous middle-class backgrounds, come from across the country to its campus. Even the little diversity which exists is surprising in light of the small size of the student body (about 1000) and the college's relatively isolated location.

This type of college often has ambitious plans to expand its student body and faculty, but like most private institutions, it finds it increasingly difficult to attract students. Since an education of equal quality at far less cost may be obtainable at public institutions, plans for expansion are difficult to implement. This type of college faces steadily increasing financial burdens, for about one-third of its students receive financial aid, and the proportion continues to increase each year. There is usually a sizeable institutional scholarship program, and also a school-financed employment program.

Several factors account for the fact that the college disburses substantially more institutional than federally subsidized financial aid. Some trustees are reluctant to approve participation in Work-Study, for example, because the program is viewed as a threat of outside encroachment upon the affairs of the institution. Furthermore, family income limitations attached to federal programs are thought to be far too low, and this too accounts for the low ratio of federal to total aid outlays at the college. In addition to explicit programs of grants, work, and loans, the college has also provided for tuition payments to be spread out over the year.

Despite these measures, the college is unable to award aid packages equal to the cost of attendance at the institution. An inevitable consequence is that there are very few minority students enrolled at the college, and those who are attending are not generally from economically disadvantaged backgrounds.

The small size and personal approach to students of the Type One college perhaps explain how this type of institution continues to attract students despite rising costs. As part of its "student-centered" philosophy, the Work-Study Coordinator at the uninvolved college devotes considerable effort to securing educationally and vocationally relevant jobs for students. This is not always possible, however, since employers who request participation in the program are often turned down because of insufficient funds. Therefore, the range of opportunities for placing students is limited.

The Work-Study Coordinator at this type of college does not usually solicit formal reports from employers on the job performances of students. He gathers much insight, however, through frequent informal visits and telephone calls to employers. The latter, in sum, are informed of problems which students are experiencing, and the Coordinator himself generally attends to whatever adjustments are required when a student drops employment for academic or other reasons.

Administrators at the Type One college criticize Office of Education for over-emphasis on student family income levels, and for restricting the autonomy of local administrators in assessing student needs. They argue that Work-Study directives and pronouncements should reduce the emphasis of the program as a means of servicing minority students, and should consider the financial requirements of the less disadvantaged (white) student. And, finally, they charge that many colleges are utilizing the Work-Study Program as a device to secure cheap manpower, and that it is the low-income/minority student who most often is placed in the more menial jobs.

Type Two

The Type Two college contrasts with Type One in many respects. It is located in an affluent satellite community of a large metropolis; it is usually a public institution, and its student body is often about twenty times larger than that of the Type One college.

This type of institution has grown to its present size in only the past decade or so. Students are largely commuters from the surrounding community, together with a few out-of-state residents who are required to pay a much higher tuition. Though the Type Two college is affluent, its lower costs and the availability of special state and federal funds have led to a large (in absolute terms) enrollment of minority and disadvantaged students.

Whereas students at the Type One college are frequently bound to it by family ties and communal traditions, those who attend the Type Two college complain that it is a "sausage factory," in the business of processing as many students as quickly as possible. Indeed, the atmosphere does appear to be formal and bureaucratic. In the Work-Study Program, for instance, students are classified into a complex matrix of job skill, financial need categories, and class level, and are sent to employers carrying handfuls of forms which must be completed and returned to the Work-Study or other administrative offices. Paychecks circulate through the state higher education bureaucracy before they reach the student--often six weeks after he has begun work. Formal evaluations of the student's job performance are required of employers; little other communication between employer and Work-Study Coordinator, however, is expected. Most employment situations have been arranged by telephone or mail, with the contracting parties rarely or never meeting face to face.

Special minority education programs at the Type Two college often employ Work-Study students. Those working in such programs are usually upperclassmen, themselves of minority background, who tutor first year students, and recruit promising high school students from ghetto schools. The coordination of the CWS program with these special minority education programs has not always been smooth; differential degrees of commitment to such recruitment and supportive programs has created some tension between the more and the less committed students, faculty, and administrative staff. Still, it is clear that this type of college is succeeding on an extensive scale in educating large numbers of students who would otherwise not have continued beyond high school. Most of its Work-Study administrators remain committed to minority education goals, and generally Work-Study and financial aid staff enjoy friendly and productive relations with special program staff.

Type Three

The Type Three college is similar to Type One in that it is also usually a rural institution; but unlike it, the institution recruits almost all of its students from its immediate vicinity. These students are from low-income families and have grown up in a rural background rich in traditional kinship loyalties but poor in employment opportunities. Young men in the area frequently leave for the industrial cities in search of employment, even though local efforts at developing industry and employment opportunities have begun to stem the tide. The college will play a role in these attempts, as efforts are made to introduce modern vocational training programs into its curriculum to supplement the traditional focus on teachers' education.

The Type Three college has a much substantially higher minority enrollment than even the committed college, but it experiences few activist demands from students or staff to accelerate or alter its educational efforts. Teaching and administration at this college is rather paternalistic or authoritarian; students do not question course offerings, and apathy rather than militancy, is often a problem.

Employment in the institution's Work-Study program on-campus is limited to routine work in maintenance and grounds, cafeteria, library and a few clerical jobs. There are some summer off-campus placements in nearby community social health centers, but such programs employ only a few students and their efforts have engendered some local opposition, since student employees are sometimes viewed with mistrust.

The Work-Study program is not managed very efficiently at the Type Three college and administrators are frank to admit that the college is dependent upon the services of Work-Study students to bolster its serious financial situation. More critically, some administrators feel free to police student job performance with threats of transfers to more unpleasant work or poor recommendations for future employment. There is, in short, an authoritarian tone to communications between college staff and students.

In sum, it is important to note that the "types" used in this analysis are intended only as rough designations of clusters of institutional characteristics. In reality, there are many departures from the "norm" depicted by each type. For example, though the Type One college has been depicted as a private institution, many publicly supported schools approximate its student body composition and curriculum. Similarly, some private institutions resemble the profile of the Type Two college, and although the Type Three college has been pictured in a rural setting, close approximations to it may be found in inner city community colleges.

The administration of the CWS program is decisively influenced by the institutional setting in which it operates. Goals and emphases, coordination with other administrative program efforts, priorities in assignment of students to jobs--all of these are affected by the institutional context. The next section examines CWS program administration in different institutional settings and also looks at summer cooperative programs.

C. College Constituencies and Program Coordination

The picture of the Type One institution suggests a relatively homogeneous student body with faculty and administration also sharing similar outlooks, backgrounds, and general orientations. In this type of institution, there is little problem of program coordination since separate constituencies with differing degrees of commitment to work-study, to educational programs for minority students, to academic norms, rarely exist. There is general agreement among all institutional statuses that jobs should be as meaningful and challenging as possible, that personal contacts and feedback among work-study students, Coordinators, and employers are essential, and that some attempt should be made, despite the small size and critical financial state of the college, to recruit and service disadvantaged minority students. It is not a lack of ideological commitment, as much as hard financial reality, which has kept this type of college from becoming "committed" to the education of such students.

Constituencies and Coordination at the Type Two College

Massive commitments to low-income and minority students inevitably foster vocal constituencies within institutions, and this is indeed what has occurred at the Type Two college. Often, the Work-Study

Coordinator takes the initiative in focusing programming on the disadvantaged student. He takes pains to orient students for whom the work-study job serves as the first employment experience and willingly places minority students in recruitment and other special programs for disadvantaged minority group members. He puts minority students to work in schools in ghetto neighborhoods (sometimes in the immediate vicinity of the college), hoping that these students will serve as role models to influence others to continue their education beyond high school.

But while Coordinators willingly engage in these activities in the Type Two college, they are also faced by conflicting demands and responsibilities. The conventional academic and administrative staff of the institution also need Work-Study students. Sometimes student militance, sometimes apparently a concomitant of minority education, brings complaints from both on and off-campus employers. Students who correctly interpret much of their past experience in terms of patterns of discrimination are quick to make similar charges against supervisors. The latter, in turn, believe they are merely seeking standard, conforming behavior of their student employees. Coordinators often stand in the middle of sensitive dealings between ethnic studies or minority program directors, other college staff, and disgruntled students. And non-minority students, feeling the pinch of rising education costs, are quick to charge that Coordinators are engaged in "reverse discrimination."

Since the Work-Study Coordinator usually is the director of financial aid at the college, his over-all financial aid philosophy in the performance of his duties is often called into question. Militant student or faculty may seek to veto employment or financial aid policies which they feel discriminate against an ethnic minority. On several campuses, administrative roles are paralleled by students who monitor institutional policies. There may be a "student financial aid director," or student representation on the financial aid committee. Growing numbers of minority members work as placement interviewers, financial need analysts, and in other financial aid positions. Because of its close connections with low-income students, the Work-Study office in the Type Two college is quick to represent minorities among its staff. Even where formal representation of students has not come about, many aid administrators report that they devote a great deal of their energies in dialogues with students. Several administrators are proud to point out that campus disturbances and militant criticism have not (as yet) focused on their programs.

The attempt to achieve consensus among the varying constituencies at the Type Two college by taking affirmative action to foster educational and employment opportunities for minority and low-income students, has affected the day-to-day operation of the Work-Study program. A substantial portion of the Work-Study budget may be devoted to staffing ethnic studies or special service programs for minority and disadvantaged students; funds may be set aside to support summer employment for minority group students who otherwise could not be expected to obtain work; special efforts may be made to orient students to "first time" employment experiences and to accommodate employers to what is often a similarly novel experience with low income/minority employees.

Other measures which indirectly support minority group education are even more numerous. Special pains are taken to secure placements of educationally disadvantaged students in work which will not be too burdensome, and which the student will be able to handle despite his relative inexperience in employment situations. Work-Study participation in community action programs, in community legal services, and in urban renewal efforts may be motivated by an over-all institutional commitment to minority/disadvantaged education, as well as by an attempt to obtain or retain the support of potentially dissident constituencies.

Sometimes efforts on behalf of minority/disadvantaged students run counter to the traditional goals of the Type Two college. This type of school has previously served middle- or upper-income students, and continues to educate many more of these than of low-income students. Whereas ten years ago these colleges typically enrolled 12,000 students, of which 30 or fewer were black students, today these institutions may enroll 600 black students out of a total student body of 16,000. This twenty-fold increase in black enrollment has called for tremendous change in the traditional curriculum and has spiraled the need for counseling and remedial services. Yet minority program students and staff charge, with some justification, that 600 students are far too few and calls to double minority enrollments in one-year periods are frequently heard at the committed colleges. Proposals that education for minority/disadvantaged students take precedence over expansion of the graduate-level curriculum may cause faculty, who applauded the original commitment, to fear that the very intellectual foundation of the institution is threatened. Such fears are buttressed by occasional demands that minority students be taught by minority teachers; faculty reservations about the extension of minority education may harden into active resistance at that point.

Another possible critic of the Work-Study program at the Type Two college may be the off-campus employer. Many off-campus agencies are dependent upon public donations for their operations and when minority group students employed as recreation aides fail to salute the flag at a public occasion, or demonstrate against "racist" employment practices, employers are quick to reconsider the advantages of continued Work-Study participation. It is an irony of the contemporary educational scene that those institutions which have attempted the most on behalf of education for minority students are frequently now experiencing conflict, inability to coordinate efforts, and a forced reexamination of earlier idealistic attitudes.

The Work-Study Coordinator at the Type Two college is in a particularly sensitive position. Though he is not part of the special (minority) program staff, he is one of the closest of all administrators in the traditional spheres of college operations to these persons. Federal mandates commit him to the goal of aiding the neediest students, and these include, above all, newly recruited minority students. Though special funds may be secured for such students, these funds often prove insufficient. Funding cutbacks of special programs (including reverses in state legislatures) bring renewed pressures on the Work-Study Coordinator to increase minority Work-Study employment or to increase wages paid to minority students. Many Special Services for Disadvantaged Students programs, for example, include student personnel budgets as components, but these budgets are limited and project directors are frequently tempted to supplement them with Work-Study support. In effect, the Coordinator who has carefully cultivated off-campus employers in order to generate interesting or challenging jobs for talented students may be asked to sacrifice these placements to financially needier but often educationally more disadvantaged students. This, in turn, increases the cry of "reverse discrimination" among the disappointed students from slightly higher income backgrounds.

In view of these conflicts and cross-pressures, it is noteworthy that no Work-Study Coordinators have reported serious student opposition, even though they frequently note student criticism. These administrators have apparently compiled a very commendable record in reconciling the needs of minority students and special program staff with other college constituencies.

Constituencies and Coordination at the Type Three College

The Type Three institution with its large low-income/minority enrollment is also committed to educate students from disadvantaged backgrounds. But this type of institution faces different problems from those of the Type Two college. Whereas the pressing problems of the latter are to mediate conflict and avert moves toward separatism, the Type Three institution faces the challenge of providing quality programs, including worthwhile student employment, in the midst of pressing financial needs and institutional weakness.

Low-income students at these schools are often engaged in menial employment, as they are pressed into duties which will bolster the institution's inadequate financial structure. The sentiment at these colleges is typically "we're all in the same boat," and few students are surprised or even critical when they are told that they must give up their Work-Study job or other financial aid because of sudden shortages of funds.

While Work-Study Coordinators try to be selective in placing students in jobs, in the Type Three college nearly all placements are on-campus, and these are concentrated in the cafeteria, grounds and maintenance, and library, with a scattering of clerical position in administrative offices.[6] The college is often located in an economically depressed area, in part explaining the concentration of employment on-campus and in low-level jobs. In addition, however, this type of institution is generally slow to respond to the potential educational relevance of part-time student employment. Administrators of Work-Study at these colleges are less apt to define their roles in educational terms, and their attitudes are often paternalistic and authoritarian. The institution is conscious of its poverty and moralistic in its emphasis that students are fortunate to have a chance at whatever educational and employment opportunities it offers.

Whether the Type Three college is located in a traditional, rural area, or in an inner city ghetto neighborhood, its employment program is adversely affected. In community colleges in rural locations, for example, the student body usually comes from poor neighboring counties and enters college with low expectations of what the institution can offer in the way of both education and employment. Furthermore, there are few off-campus employment possibilities in the rural setting, and often the community which surrounds the institution is even more traditional and resistant to innovation than the institution itself.

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[6] See Chapters Four and Five for evidence that these are exactly the types of jobs which are least satisfying for students.

The position of the community college within the inner city is not unlike that of the college in the rural area. Employment opportunities are not abundant in the inner city; though students are exposed to the diversity of city life, they typically have either no employment experience or have worked at unskilled jobs, and they may exhibit behavioral and speech patterns which limit their acceptance in urban employment settings. Furthermore, the low-income, minority student in the inner city community college is generally a commuter, somewhat older than the average college student, and possessed of a strong vocational orientation. He seeks a degree which will serve as a union card for future employment and resents both the time required to earn his CWS dollars and the type of work in which he's placed--usually unrelated to his vocational interests. He views his CWS job as low-level employment--exactly the sort of work he's trying to avoid by obtaining a post-secondary education. And, in addition, he may be one of the more than half of all Open Admissions Students requiring supportive services in order to perform at the college level; in that case, the CWS job cuts into valuable study and class time. In sum, in the Type Three college, job placements are governed by pressing institutional needs and are constrained by a low common denominator of student experience--both of these factors limit employment programs and handicap Work-Study students, even those who may possess exceptional talent.

Constituencies and Coordination in Summer Cooperative Employment Programs

Many factors impel institutions to form or participate in summer cooperative CWS programs. Some, such as Urban Corps, a nation-wide program, are designed to facilitate the exposure of students to employment opportunities available in city governments and related agencies. Other programs, such as the one studied in Texas, are prompted by needs for summer employment when students return to geographically dispersed homes at long distances from their colleges.

The administrative burdens of managing employment for only one or a few students in each of dozens of hometowns (or government departments) rapidly multiply. Many of the requirements in arranging for off-campus employment are stable whether the placement of one or one hundred students is involved. For example, ascertaining the initial non-profit status of the employer, securing the off-campus employment contract, arranging for wage payments and documentation of hours worked, determination of health and other overhead costs, all have to be done regardless of the number of students involved.[7]

These factors represent too great a cost in the placement of one or a few students off-campus in scattered sites (scattered either in terms of geography or within complex administrative structures). Furthermore, the fact that in subsequent summers a given college will require different placements for students with different skills and interests compounds the drawbacks of extensive off-campus programming by the single educational institution.

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[7] See Chapter Six for evidence that establishing and maintaining an off-campus employment program is regarded by many aid officers as a difficult undertaking.

Cooperative employment programs, therefore, promise large administrative savings. A central office staff can specialize in developing contacts in many small towns in one state or a region or within many departments in a city government. This office can establish uniform payroll and other administrative procedures, and can promise employers a steady supply of students from year to year (although fluctuations in funding sometimes lead to drastic cut-backs of summer programs). The cooperative employment office serves as a "middle man" between scattered educational institutions on the one hand, and scattered employment sites on the other.

While there are many advantages to participating in summer cooperative programs, several problems typically arise from the attempt to begin or maintain these programs.

Within an institution a CWS program is subject to the differing goals and expectations of administrators, students, faculties, employers, and even community residents. In the summer cooperative program, the problems of differing constituencies is magnified since such programs bring together institutions with varying degrees of commitment to low-income/minority employment and with different expectations as to the goals of CWS. As seen in previous sections of this chapter, some institutions rely heavily upon CWS for maintenance of institutional operations in the face of rising costs. Other Work-Study Coordinators are committed to providing students with relevant challenging jobs. Coordinators who participate in cooperative programs must, by and large, yield to a central control over the management of the program. When there is also competition between institutions, even slight differences in policy emphases can form the basis for growing frictions and barriers to cooperation.

Coordinators may also feel that devoting substantial sums to cooperative programs may benefit students who seek summer hometown employment or experience in government, but may detract from the benefits of CWS at their own institutions. The cooperative employment program, for instance, may institute higher wage rates than some local Coordinators feel they are able to sustain within their own programs. It is not unusual to find some students within a given off-campus agency employed at differing rates for the same type of work. Wage rates which are set at high levels for brief summer employment (where there may also be additional costs to students) may also, however, establish student expectations that they will (or should) be paid at these same rates during the school year. Finally, the structure of federal funding procedures also breeds competitive attitudes among Work-Study Coordinators; these attitudes may be laid aside with great difficulty, even if sizeable administrative savings result from cooperation.

Some types of institutions derive more benefits from participation in summer cooperative programs than do others. The Type One college, because of its small size and often isolated location, is clearly most likely to benefit from such participation. However, as noted previously, this institutional type is also likely to be most sensitive to the need for preserving its institutional autonomy. The Type Three college, which is also often small in size and which suffers frequently from inadequate administrative staffing and experience, is also a potential recipient of the benefits of participation. If this type of institution is sometimes reluctant to participate, it may be that it feels threatened by its larger and more sophisticated co-participants, such as the Type Two college. Indeed, it is often the Type Two college which has been the catalyst for inauguration of the cooperative program (though nominally the program is independent of direct administrative control by any one institution).

Problems of timing and coordination are also magnified in the summer cooperative program. Many local governmental units require planning long in advance in order to allocate employment funds within their own budgetary channels. Urban Corps and other cooperative programs are critically vulnerable to delayed federal notifications of funding for summer employment to participating institutions. Institutions are asked in the winter to estimate the number of employment slots which they wish to use in the next summer's programs - but these schools will not know until the spring just how much money they will have available for summer wages. Therefore, even careful planning by the central office, recruitment of students (who may lay aside other employment opportunities in the expectation of receiving Work-Study assistance), and the cooperation of employers can be cancelled by delays in funding notifications.

Analysis of the survey data, based on responses from students, aid officers, and employers participating in CWS has yielded much information about both the strengths and weaknesses of the program. Nothing succeeds so much, however, as on-the-spot visits and discussions, in promoting insights into the problems and rewards involved in administering a social action program. This general description of the kinds of institutions participating in CWS and of the typical problems faced by administrators of the program was designed to provide a picture of the setting in which CWS programs operate. The remainder of the report will focus on the quantitative data obtained from students, financial aid officers, and employers.

In the meantime, it should be emphasized that there was unanimity among the research team conducting the case studies, that Work-Study Coordinators are making noble efforts, in the face of almost insurmountable odds--late notifications, paring down of requests, incompatible demands of conflicting constituencies, financial instability--to provide term-time employment opportunities which will enable young people to obtain the benefits of post-secondary eduction.

CHAPTER TWO

THE CWS STUDENT

Abstract

This chapter begins by pointing up the relative success of the CWS program in providing employment for low-income/minority students by comparing the characteristics of the 2000 freshmen participating in the study with the profile of a national sample from the same class compiled by the American Council on Education. The analysis then focuses on the entire CWS respondent sample to examine the relationship between family income and academic achievement; source of funds for paying college expenses; and attitudes toward work and college. The chapter closes with a discussion of the relationship between ethnic background and these factors.

CHAPTER TWO

THE CWS STUDENT

Section A. The CWS Student and National Norms

CWS directives stipulate that part-time employment be made available for students who need the earnings in order to continue their studies beyond high school with particular emphasis placed on finding opportunities for students from low-income families.[1] Application forms for FY 1972 required documentation of the intended distribution of federal student aid funds to students from stipulated income levels. To assure fulfillment of the federally stated objectives, financial aid officers were further instructed to:

(1) Identify students from low-income families (less than $3200)

(2) "...Offer CWS employment first to those students" (from low-income families)[2]

(3) Actively recruit such students

(4) Provide compensatory programs for those in need of specialized instruction or counseling

How does the researcher detect which students are given preference in the local distribution of federal financial aid funds? Since a control group was eliminated from the study design,[3] some yardstick had to be found for comparatively measuring the socio-economic backgrounds of CWS students. Fortunately, such a standard is available in the data collected during the same academic year (1970-71) by American Council on Education (ACE) from a nationwide sample of college freshmen.[4] Several items from the ACE instrument were included in the Student Questionnaire to facilitate comparison between the national sample of freshmen and CWS freshmen. Accordingly, selected relevant characteristics of these two groups are contrasted to ascertain whether CWS employment opportunities are in fact being channeled to low-income students.

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[1] Federal Register, Vol. 34, No. 91, Tuesday, May 13, 1969.

[2] CWS Manual, 1968, p. 3-7. The low-income student is defined on p. 3-8.

[3] The study was designed by USOE but no control group was incorporated due to budgetary constraints.

Table 2.1 presents data which indicate that the CWS student tends to start college a year later than his ACE counterpart: 33% are 19 years old, compared to 14% of the national sample of freshmen. The CWS freshman is more likely to have grown up on a farm or in a small town, but less likely to have lived in a suburb.

Similarly, there are marked differences in the ethnic backgrounds of the two groups: 8% of the ACE freshmen but 31% of the CWS first year students come from minority backgrounds. Parental background differences between ACE and CWS freshmen are also evident. Only 19% of the fathers or the mothers of the CWS freshmen have had any college, while the corresponding ACE figures are 44% for the fathers, 36% for

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[4] American Council on Education, *National Norms for Entering Freshmen,* Washington, D.C., Vol. 5, No. 6, 1970.

TABLE 2.1[a]

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SELECTED BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS FOR CWS AND ACE FRESHMEN SAMPLES

Selected Background Characteristics	ACE 1970	CWS 1970
Age	(180,684)	(2,137)
17 or younger	3.9%	2.1%
18	73.2	52.8
19	14.4	32.9
20 or older	8.4	12.0
Residence while growing up:	(180,684)	(2,130)
Farm	9.2%	17.1%
Small town	20.4	29.6
Moderate-size town	32.0	27.0
Suburb	23.2	11.3
Large city	15.3	15.0
Miles from College:	(180,684)	(2,059)
Less than 10	27.2%	24.6%
11 - 50	24.9	27.9
51 - 100	12.7	15.1
1-1 - 500	26.6	24.6
Over 500 miles	8.6	7.7
Racial Background	(180,684)*	(2,095)
Caucasian	91.1%	69.4%
Negro (ACE reference)	6.0	20.1
American Indian	.6	.9
Oriental	1.1	1.5
Other	1.6	8.1
Father's Education	(180,684)	(2,038)
Grammar school or less	10.7%	30.1%
Some high school	16.0	17.5
High school graduate	29.1	33.3
Some college or more	44.2	19.2
Mother's Education	(180,684)	(2,088)
Grammar school or less	7.1%	21.3%
Some high school	14.4	17.7
High school graduate	42.6	42.2
Some college or more	35.9	18.8

*Since accurate data was not available for 1970, an average of the 1969 and 1971 information on race was used at the suggestion of Alan E. Bayer of ACE.

TABLE 2.1--Continued

Selected Background Characteristics	ACE 1970	CWS 1970
Father's Occupation[b]	(180,684)	(2,078)
Professional or semi-professional	16.8%	9.5%
Business	30.1	15.1
Skilled worker	12.4	22.4
Semi-skilled worker	8.1	15.4
Unskilled worker	4.5	13.6
Unemployed	1.4	9.5
Other	26.7[c]	14.6[d]
Parental Income	(180,684)	(1,684)[e]
Less than $4000	5.9%	28.7%
4000 - 5999	7.7	20.4
6000 - 7999	10.7	21.9
8000 - 9999	13.3	17.4
$10,000 or more	62.4	11.6

[a] Table A.2.1 in Appendix A enables a comparison of 1969-70 ACE-EOG freshmen with the two 1970-71 groups (ACE and CWS). Two factors are immediately obvious:

1. The ACE samples of freshmen remain stable over the two years.
2. The 1970 CWS freshman is somewhat different from the 1969 EOG recipient. He is more likely than the first-year EOG student to:
    a. Be older
    b. Have grown up in a suburb
    c. Live closer to the educational institution he attends
    d. Come from a family with higher socio-economic background
    e. Have somewhat lower educational and occupational expectations.

[b] Data are not entirely comparable since CWS students were asked for the occupation of the head of household.

[c] Includes clerical and sales, protective workers, "don't know", plus artist, farmer/forster, military career.

[d] Includes clerical and sales, protective workers, and "don't know."

[e] FAO reported income is used here since the income categories in the Student Questionnaire were not congruent with the ACE income breaks. If student responses are utilized, the comparison is restricted to a dichotomy--either above or below $6000: 47% of the CWS families earn less than $6000 but the percentage drops to a low 14% for the ACE freshmen.

the mothers. Similarly, the families of CWS students are substantially lower in occupational and income rank; 23% of CWS freshmen, compared to only 6% of the ACE freshmen, report that the household head is a laborer or unemployed. Almost two-thirds of the ACE sample (62%) report an annual family income over $10,000, while financial aid officers report that 12 % of the CWS freshmen come from families with annual incomes of $10,000 or more.

These background factors differentiate the CWS and ACE freshmen to a greater extent than either academic factors, or educational and occupational expectations. Interestingly, the average grade in high school and the high school rank reported by the CWS freshman is above the national norms. More ACE than CWS freshmen report average high school grades of B or lower; two and a half times as many ranked in the bottom half of the high school class. This finding may be more superficial than real since there is no way to control for the quality of the high school attended, and high school quality cannot be dismissed.[6] About one-third of the CWS freshmen attended a high school which did not have a college preparatory program; only a little more than half actually pursued an academic or college preparatory curriculum;[7] almost three-fourths had at least one vocational course in high school. Furthermore, the percentage of the ACE sample reporting

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[6] For a recent discussion of the relativity of grades and ranking see Joel I. Nelson, "High School Context and College Plans: The Impact of Social Structure on Aspirations." *American Sociological Review,* XXXVII (April, 1972), 143-8.

[7] The effect of following a non-college preparatory course in high school on the type of CWS job held is noted in Table A.4.2.

TABLE 2.2[a]

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SELECTED ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS FOR CWS FRESHMEN AND ACE SAMPLE

Selected Background Characteristics	ACE 1970	CWS 1970
Average Grade in High School	(180,684)	(2,126)
A or A+	5.3%	7.2%
A-	9.2	12.4
B+	17.4	22.2
B	24.3	19.8
B-	16.2	13.8
C+	15.9	14.3
C	11.0	9.9
Less than C	.7	.4
High School Rank	(180,684)	(1,830)
Top quarter	42.2%	65.3%
Second quarter	31.3	24.0
Bottom half	26.5	10.7
High School Class Going to College	(180,684)	(2,129)
More than 75%	29.6%	15.0%
50 - 74	35.9	42.6
25 - 49	23.2	33.3
Less than 25%	11.4	9.2
Highest Degree Planned	(180,684)	(1,763)
Associate or less	9.7%	16.1%
B.A. or B.S.	38.7	45.1
M.A. or higher	49.0	38.8
Other	2.6	-

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[a] Table A.2.2 in Appendix A enables a comparison of ACE and CWS freshmen enrolled in the same type of institution. It is apparent that the contrasts between the two groups persist at the two-year level, but are not as striking as at the university level.

TABLE 2.2--Continued

Selected Background Characteristics	ACE 1970	CWS 1970
Field Expect to Work In:	(159,725)	(1,943)
Art	7.0%	5.7%
Business	13.0	6.6
Clergy	.9	1.5
College teaching	1.1	3.0
Medicine	4.4	4.6
Elementary or secondary education	21.8	27.6
Engineering	8.5	3.8
Farming and forestry	2.0	1.3
Health professions	5.1	2.4
Law	4.3	2.5
Nursing	4.5	5.0
Research scientist	2.9	2.4
Other field	24.3	33.6[b]

[b] Includes armed forces, policeman, fireman, detective, sheriff; Community or political action, ecology, urban planning; computer programming, accounting; government or judiciary service; guidance or psychology; housewife; library work; machinist, construction work, electrician, foreman in mine or factory; secretary, stewardess, office work, modeling; social work; other.

that more than three-fourths of their high school graduating class went on to college is twice as large as that for the CWS students, (30% to 15% respectively). In light of these factors a grade of "A" or "A-", or a top quartile ranking, may not connote a comparable degree of academic achievement for the CWS student as for the ACE freshman who may have attended a more academically demanding high school.

Academic expectations of CWS freshmen are somewhat below those of the national sample; 39% of the CWS group but 49% of the ACE sample plan to extend their education beyond college. The occupational expectations of the two groups are quite similar.[8] The most noticeable differences are that CWS freshmen are less likely than ACE students to select business but more likely to select teaching as their occupational choice. The most subtle difference between the two groups is the number aiming toward one of the professions. Taken singly, the amounts seem relatively unimportant; but aggregated they reach 31% for the ACE students and only 22% for the CWS freshmen.

Despite the limitations inherent in the comparison of the two freshmen samples, it is apparent that CWS students are from distinctly lower socio-economic backgrounds. When viewed against the yardstick of national norms, it seems fair to conclude that current practice is fulfilling the primary goal of the program as stated in the original legislation and is providing employment for high school graduates from low-income families.

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[8] These comparisons must be made with caution since the choices presented to the two groups were not identical.

Section B. Characteristics of the CWS Student

Now that it has been established that students in the CWS Program are being selected from the lower socio-economic groups of society, it remains to examine their characteristics more closely. The balance of this chapter presents a description of the 1970-71 CWS students, focusing on the relationship between family income and ethnic background on the one hand, and academic achievement, amount of financial aid, and attitudes on the other.

I. Income

Although the thrust of the federal financial aid programs is to channel funds to low-income students, there are no explicit upper income limitations on eligibility for CWS employment--provided that low-income students are served first. Once funds have been allocated to an institution, the financial aid officer has the discretion to determine the distribution of funds to individual students.

For the CWS program, a low-income student is defined as one coming from a family with an annual income of less than $3200 for families with no dependents and somewhat higher as the number of dependents is increased.[9] In addition, there are special considerations for extenuating family circumstances, cost of living variations, family assets, and orphan or independent student status which enter the formula for determining eligibility for a CWS award.[10]

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[9] CWS Manual, 1968, p. 3-8.

[10] *Ibid*, pp. 3-9 and 3-10.

TABLE 2.3

FAMILY INCOME OF COLLEGE WORK-STUDY STUDENTS

Family Income	Student Respond-ents[a]	FAO Sample	FAO Reported Data for Student Respondents not Reporting Income
Less than $3000	14.0%	24.1%	27.8%
$3,000 - $5,999	30.2	31.0	29.4
$6,000 - $7,499	16.0	15.5	13.2
$7.500 - $8,999	13.5	11.7	12.3
$9,000 or more	26.2	17.7	17.2
N	(6,574)	(9,664)	(917)

[a] Student Respondents are those who completed the original questionnaire. The FAO Sample refers to those students from whom data were provided by the financial aid officer on the Student Characteristic Form.

Table 2.3 presents income data from both the student and the financial aid officer. Even though there is increasing emphasis on channeling CWS employment opportunities to students from low-income families, this table shows that approximately one-half of the CWS students come from families with an income of $6000 or more. A comparison of student and aid officer responses, category by category, reveals that there is an almost perfect match between the two distributions--except for the highest and lowest income categories.

It may be that some of the students reporting parental incomes in the higher ranges are the independent students[11] whose personal incomes are being reported by the financial aid officer and that this accounts for the discrepancy in Table 2.3. This is borne out in Table 2.4 which reveals that 29% of the 881 independent students reporting family incomes above $6000 are classified in the "under $3000" category by the financial aid officer. Among the 1807 parent-supported students the figure drops to 3%. In other words, it appears that some financial aid officers are reporting the income available to the student, while others are reporting the student's parental income.

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[11] Qualifications for classification as "independent" student are presented in CWS Manual, page 3-10.

TABLE 2.4

PERCENTAGE OF FINANCIAL AID OFFICERS REPORTING GROSS FAMILY INCOME UNDER $3000 BY STUDENT REPORTED PARENTAL INCOME AND BY STUDENT STATUS

Student Reported Parental Income	Independent Students		Parent-Supported Students	
Under $3000	67.4%	(334)	59.4%	(367)
$3000 - 5999	30.5	(561)	13.4	(957)
$6000 or more	28.7	(881)	3.1	(1807)

Although there appears to be some question as to whether financial aid officers are reporting student resources or parental income, the fact remains that at least 45% of the CWS students come from families with annual incomes of $6000 or above. In fact, for 18% the financial aid officer reports family incomes of $9000 or more. Perhaps these students have siblings attending college at the same time, or there may be other "extenuating" circumstances[12] which warrant the provision of CWS employment despite the seemingly high parental income. The data do not permit testing such possibilities directly. However, the institutions and geographic locations of these students can be traced and areas of concentration noted, which may help explain the relatively high frequency of CWS students from the higher income levels. Similarly, differences between students from the lowest and highest income levels may help explain the eligibility of the high income student for CWS employment.

It is apparent from Table 2.5 that in certain types of institutions, and in certain sections of the country, CWS students are more likely to be drawn from families with annual incomes of $9000 or over. The percentage is highest at the private university, lowest at the public two-year institution. In general, the proportion of CWS students from the highest income level in the private sector is almost twice as great as that in public institutions. Notice too, that less than 10% of the students attending the predominantly black schools come from families with annual incomes of $7500 or more, while close to one-third of the CWS students enrolled at predominantly white schools come from the higher income levels.

Regional differences in the income levels of CWS students are also apparent. Almost one of every three CWS students in Region One

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[12] See CWS Manual, pp. 3-9, 3-10.

TABLE 2.5

GROSS FAMILY INCOME OF CWS STUDENTS BY SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Institutional Characteristics	(n)	Parental Income--FAO Sample [a]				
		Under $3000	$3000-5999	$6000-7499	$7500-8999	$9000 or more
All Students	(9664)	24.1%	31.0%	15.5%	11.7%	17.7%
Type/Control						
Private university	(593)	13.7%	26.8%	16.7%	11.7%	31.2%
Public university	(2240)	25.8	30.0	14.9	11.7	17.6
Private four-year	(2052)	18.9	29.1	16.7	13.5	21.8
Public four-year	(2450)	25.1	30.8	16.0	11.7	16.4
Private two-year	(278)	19.4	26.6	17.6	13.3	23.0
Public two-year	(2079)	29.8	35.7	14.0	9.7	10.8
Institutional Control						
State	(3259)	23.6%	31.3%	15.8%	12.3%	17.1%
Local	(674)	29.1	33.1	13.1	11.7	13.1
Denominational	(1103)	17.6	26.7	18.0	15.9	21.8
Racial Composition						
Predominantly white	(8695)	22.6%	29.7%	16.0%	12.4%	19.2%
Predominantly black	(997)	37.0	42.0	11.3	5.0	4.6
Region						
I	(546)	12.8%	26.0%	15.0%	13.2%	33.0%
II	(704)	20.6	28.1	15.2	14.6	21.4
III	(867)	17.3	30.2	17.5	14.5	20.4
IV	(2058)	29.1	36.2	14.6	8.8	11.4
V	(1648)	18.8	30.1	16.8	14.3	20.0
VI	(1352)	27.7	34.7	14.8	9.6	13.2
VII	(633)	17.5	27.8	16.9	12.8	25.0
VIII	(584)	21.7	28.3	14.6	12.8	22.6
IX	(850)	35.8	28.9	14.9	9.8	10.6
X	(450)	32.2	23.1	15.3	10.0	19.3

TABLE 2.5--Continued

Selected Institutional Characteristics	(n)	Parental Income--FAO Sample				
		Under $3000	$3000-5999	$6000-7499	$7500-8999	$9000 or more
Tuition and fees						
Less than $400	(3464)	30.5%	34.0%	14.2%	9.8%	11.5%
$1500 or more	(1232)	14.3	22.6	17.6	14.4	31.0

[a] Despite the possible limitations, financial aid officer reported income is used in preference to student reported income for several reasons:

(1) More than 1250 of the 7830 student respondents did not provide information on parental income

(2) Data provided by the financial aid office may be more reliable than student estimates since the amount is obtained from the Parents' Confidential Statement or directly from the family's income tax report.

comes from a "high" income family, compared with one in eight, nine, or ten in Regions Six, Four, and Nine respectively. These institutional and sectional variations in the income levels of this sample of federally funded students reflect differences in institutional costs which in turn affect student levels of need.[13] As Table 2.5 indicates, in the highest cost institutions, almost one in three students comes from a family with an income of $9000 or more; in institutions where tuition and fees are less than $400, only 12% of the CWS students are from relatively high income families.

In sum, while concerted efforts are being made by financial aid officers to channel federal monies to "low-income" students, the formula for determining need is flexible enough to permit offering assistance to the student of moderate means who is trying to cover the high costs of attending the institution of his choice.

Program guidelines promulgated in the CWS Manual do not place an explicit upper limit on parental income, but they do emphasize that the needs of low-income students must be satisfied first. Table 2.6 offers evidence that students from the highest income group are hardly being coddled by financial aid officers. For instance,

(1) Only one in seven has an EOG
(2) Almost one in four holds a term-time job, other than his CWS employment

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[13] See Friedman and Thompson, *op. cit.*, p. 260 for comparative costs of attending colleges of varying type and control and in different regions of the country.

TABLE 2.6

PERCENT OF CWS STUDENTS USING VARIOUS SOURCES OF FUNDS FOR MEETING COLLEGE COSTS BY GROSS PARENTAL INCOME

Source of Funds for College Costs	Gross Parental Income--FAO Respondents[a]				
	Under $3000	$3000-5999	$6000-7499	$7500-8999	$9000 or more
Parental Contribution	14.1% (1211)	29.9% (1723)	57.9% (924)	77.7% (749)	92.4% (1077)
Term-Time Employment (other than CWS)	19.8% (1321)	19.5% (1810)	19.4% (956)	21.9% (768)	23.0% (1079)
EOG	60.6% (1662)	65.2% (2113)	56.7% (928)	44.6% (637)	13.3% (767)
NDSL	57.1% (1586)	60.1% (2012)	61.6% (950)	57.5% (716)	60.3% (1032)
Other Loan	18.1% (1321)	16.3% (1810)	19.0% (956)	18.5% (768)	22.4% (1079)
Summer Employment	43.7% (1321)	49.1% (1810)	53.3% (956)	59.6% (768)	62.7% (1079)
Personal Savings or Gifts	35.9% (1321)	39.8% (1810)	45.5% (956)	52.2% (768)	55.2% (1079)
College or State Scholarship	26.4% (1321)	32.5% (1810)	37.9% (956)	39.8% (768)	42.0% (1079)

[a] The term "FAO Respondents" includes students for whom data from both the Student Questionnaire and the Student Characteristic Form are available. This sample is used when student supplied information is presented together with information provided by the financial aid officer.

(3) Three out of five have NDSL's

(4) More than one in four hold a loan other than NDSL

(5) Over 90% are expected to receive a parental contribution to help defray the costs of college.

Furthermore, the higher-income bracket student is more likely than his low-income counterpart to finance his education beyond high school through personal savings, summer employment, or scholarships.[14]

A comparison of CWS and ACE freshmen clearly indicated that CWS employment _is_ being channeled to low-income students, but that a substantial proportion of CWS students are from families with annual incomes of $9000 or above. Further examination of the data has revealed that these students are enrolled in relatively high-cost institutions, their parents are paying a substantial share of their expenses, and that the students themselves have accepted the obligation of loans, worked during the summer, or dipped into personal savings to help defray the costs of continuing their education. The low-income student, with little or no contribution from his parents is heavily reliant upon the supplemental grant he usually receives in the form of an EOG to compensate for this lack of personal resources. Not as many turn to the other common sources of aid tapped by students from every other income level.

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[14] Table A.2.5 in Appendix A presents the average parental contribution, EOG, NDSL, CWS earnings, and costs for students from different income brackets. A more detailed analysis of the student's aid package is presented in Chapter Three.

The differences revealed in Table 2.6 are only a few of those which exist among students from families with various incomes. In Table 2.7 additional data are presented. For almost every item in this selected array, family income is a differentiating factor. The first section of Table 2.7 reveals that the lowest income group of CWS students is predominantly female.[15] and twice as likely to be black as students from the highest income category. More than half have grown up in a rural setting, while only 7% of the lowest income students have lived in the suburbs. These locational differences are confirmed in the Regional distributions. Close to one-half (47%) of all the lowest income students have been reared in just two of the ten Federal Regions, namely Four and Six--the southern and border states.

These families have only a 50/50 chance of retaining the real father as head of the household. When he does serve in that capacity, his occupation--if employed at all--is that of a laborer. In conjunction with this, close to one-third of these low-income families have received some form of welfare. Very few of the mothers or fathers in this income level have been able to continue their educations beyond high school, but this generation of CWS students may well be reversing the cycle in that 40% of them are the first (even when they have an older sibling) in the family to attend college.

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[15] This is true even when correction is made for the tendency of non-respondents to be male.

TABLE 2.7

SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS BY FAMILY INCOME

Selected Student Characteristics	Family Income--Student Respondents				
	Under $3000	$3000-5999	$6000-7499	$7500-8999	$9000 or more
Demographic					
Female	61.1% (904)	56.6% (1964)	56.8% (1042)	59.0% (876)	54.5% (1705)
Ethnicity Black	36.2% (892)	46.9% (1942)	15.2% (1028)	11.3% (867)	16.7% (1685)
Grew up on farm, ranch or in a small town	57.0% (902)	50.0% (1961)	46.4% (1038)	41.6% (875)	34.4% (1696)
Grew up in a suburb	7.2% (902)	8.5% (1961)	9.5% (1038)	17.1% (875)	21.8% (1696)
Grew up in DHEW Regions IV or VI	47.3% (882)	40.0% (1895)	31.0% (1008)	23.6% (834)	21.1% (1640)
Father was family head when student was in high school	53.9% (891)	68.7% (1935)	84.9% (1028)	88.3% (864)	92.5% (1674)
Father a laborer or unemployed	42.6% (378)	25.4% (1068)	14.6% (700)	10.3% (600)	4.1% (1145)
Family received welfare	31.6% (911)	15.1% (1954)	8.6% (1048)	4.9% (880)	2.7% (1722)
Father or mother had some college	16.5% (683)	23.0% (1521)	28.7% (812)	32.3% (687)	45.8% (1243)
First to attend college (has older sibling)	40.0% (683)	32.1% (1372)	30.0% (644)	26.8% (533)	18.4% (930)

TABLE 2.7--Continued

Selected Student Characteristics	Family Income--Student Respondents				
	Under $3000	$3000-5999	$6000-7499	$7500-8999	$9000 or more
Academic					
Was in college prep program in high school	41.0% (883)	48.5% (1944)	56.1% (1034)	58.4% (878)	67.8% (1705)
Less than half of high school class went to college	55.0% (907)	50.8% (1955)	48.5% (1048)	44.7% (884)	39.0% (1703)
Three closest friends went to college	45.2% (904)	50.8% (1950)	58.1% (1037)	60.4% (878)	65.9% (1700)
Decided during senior year or later to go to college	32.5% (879)	27.0% (1932)	23.0% (1029)	22.1% (865)	15.1% (1687)
Mean SAT-Verbal	477 (143)	514 (357)	541 (237)	538 (228)	571 (507)
Mean ACT	21.2 (136)	23.4 (344)	25.7 (191)	28.3 (146)	30.3 (299)
Participated in Upward Bound or Educational Talent Search	7.1% (912)	4.8% (1956)	4.7% (1044)	3.1% (869)	1.8% (1709)
Fall 1970 grades B+ or better	20.0% (823)	24.1% (1792)	29.2% (983)	29.9% (820)	33.6% (1606)
Have taken remedial courses	18.2% (922)	12.8% (1985)	9.9% (1055)	6.3% (888)	5.6% (1724)
Financial					
Student is "independent"	47.5% (901)	37.9% (1930)	32.8% (1027)	30.4% (871)	35.3% (1681)

TABLE 2.7--Continued

Selected Student Characteristics	Family Income--Student Respondents				
	Under $3000	$3000-5999	$6000-7499	$7500-8999	$9000 or more
Financial--continued					
Availability of financial aid was primary consideration	56.4% (888)	48.5% (1931)	45.0% (1017)	45.7% (866)	31.8% (1682)
Would not have been able to go to college without CWS employment	32.7% (900)	23.3% (1930)	16.2% (1027)	13.1% (860)	8.0% (1683)
Financial aid will not cover expenses	51.4% (904)	48.7% (1928)	45.4% (1033)	47.7% (855)	42.9% (1676)
Mean additional money needed	$464 (442)	$584 (874)	$616 (436)	$630 (378)	$766 (664)
Attitudinal					
Want college with intellectual challenge	17.0% (676)	18.8% (1570)	17.9% (870)	22.4% (735)	26.6% (1470)
Plan graduate or professional degree	46.3% (910)	46.3% (1060)	46.1% (1046)	51.6% (878)	55.5% (1703)
Expect to enter a "prestige" occupation[a]	20.5% (816)	22.0% (1787)	23.3% (963)	24.2% (814)	27.6% (1548)
Very sure about occupational choice	61.4% (901)	53.8% (1952)	49.9% (1041)	56.5% (875)	54.4% (1699)

[a] College teaching, research, medicine, law, ministry, architecture, or engineering.

Not surprisingly, differences among CWS students do not stop with their demographic characteristics. For example, the lowest income CWS student is least likely to come from a college-oriented environment in that only 41% have taken a college preparatory program; an overwhelming 55% have attended high schools from which less than one-half of the class has elected to go to college, while only 45% have indicated that three of their closest friends have gone on to college; and last, but by no means least in importance--a good one-third did not decide to seek admission to college until their senior year or later. This same pattern is reflected in achievement or academic aptitude measures. Mean scores on the SAT-Verbal or ACT test are lowest for this group of students, and only one in five has earned a B+ or higher average. It is not surprising, therefore, to see that the percentages appearing in the lowest income cells indicate that the highest number of students have participated in the special preparatory program such as Upward Bound or Educational Talent Search or have taken remedial courses.

A late decision to enroll in college is not to be treated lightly. Forty-nine percent of the financial aid officers report that the early applicant is generally given preference in CWS job placement. Similarly, in a recent study, the amount of a student's EOG was found to be related to the time eligibility for financial aid was recognized: the late applicant received a smaller grant.[16]

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[16] Friedman and Thompson, *op. cit.*, p. 61.

George Nash cautions that the chances of a low-income student's attending college are considerably reduced if he has not heard about the availability of financial aid before his senior year in high school.[17]

All of this points to the need to sustain and intensify efforts to reach the lowest income student while he is still in high school and preferably during his first two years. Many institutions have initiated vigorous recruitment programs with apparent success,[18] but there is now new evidence that gaps still exist in the dissemination of student financial aid information at both the high school and college levels.

The magnitude of the problem is elucidated when a few of the characteristics of the lowest-income student are examined. Almost half of the students in the lowest income category, compared to only one-third in the "$9000 or above" group, indicate that they are independent. These are students for whom no parental contribution is normally expected. It is not surprising that 56% of the lowest income group state that the availability of financial aid was the primary consideration in their choice of a college. In fact, one out of three claims that he would not have been able to attend college without CWS employment.

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[17] George Nash, "The Current Status of Financial Aid Administration." *Association of College Admissions Counselors Journal,* XII (1969).

[18] Friedman and Thompson, *op. cit.,* Chapter Four.

The low-income student, lacking accumulated personal resources and parental support, has found an entry to college through a CWS job. Unfortunately, it turns out that more than one-half of these students (and as many as 43% in the "$9000 and above" category) indicate that the total financial aid they are receiving this year will not cover their basic expenses. On the average $625 additional is required, but the amount varies for each income category and to a degree reflects the cost of attending the college.

These differences which persist among CWS students from the different income levels are translated into corresponding attitudinal differences. Not many of the CWS students from any income level are looking to college as a source of intellectual challenge but the number tends to decrease as the income level goes down.[19]

In general, educational and occupational expectations are highest at the upper income level, but none of the differences is large. Slightly more than one-half of the highest income group plan to continue their education beyond college. Looking next at the percent expecting to enter a profession, it can be inferred that approximately one-half of the students (regardless of income level) planning to continue beyond the baccalaureate have professional aspirations. And finally, it is the student from the lowest income category who expresses the greatest degree of certainty about his occupational choice.

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[19] This corresponds to previous findings that low-income college students are less likely to view the primary purpose of college as that of obtaining a broad general education, and more likely to be vocationally oriented. See Friedman and Thompson, *op. cit.*, pp. 62-64.

Research findings indicate that occupational expectations undergo considerable change during the undergraduate years.[20] The decline in students expecting to enter "prestige" professions (such as research, college teaching, or engineering) and moving toward a business career is greatest among students with low grades or SAT scores.[21] Since it has already been noted that SAT scores and grades vary directly with family income, it can be presumed that many in the lowest income category who feel "certain" about their career choice will alter this choice before graduation. Their certainty at this point, in light of their relatively high expectations, bespeaks the need for expert career guidance and counseling for the disadvantaged student who may enter college with high hopes but lacks the academic ability to attain the occupational status toward which he aspires. A successful financial aid program designed to attract low-income students and make it financially possible for them to attend college, needs to be supplemented by a special counseling program in order to maximize the probability that these students will make realistic choices and succeed in reaching their career goals.

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[20] See e.g. R. R. Hind and T. E. Wirth, "The Effects of University Experience on Occupational Choice Among Undergraduates." *Sociology of Education,* XXXXII (Winter, 1969), 50-70; also James A. Davis, *Great Aspirations* (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1962); and James A. Davis, *Undergraduate Career Decisions* (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1964).

[21] Hind and Wirth, *op. cit.*

II. Ethnicity

Table 2.8 compares ethnic background distributions of the CWS sample from two sources: the students themselves and the financial aid officer. The concentration of minority students among the CWS freshmen stood out in Table 2.1 and requires no further comment here. It appears that the financial aid officer tends to classify the Puerto-Ricans with the Spanish-surnamed Americans, and hesitates to distinguish Indians or Orientals from the rest of the group. The major difference in the two sets of percentages is the 5% exchange between the black and Caucasian Americans.[22] This discrepancy was noted in Table 1.8 and can be attributed to the underrepresentation of blacks in the respondent category.

TABLE 2.8

ETHNIC BACKGROUND OF CWS STUDENTS

Racial and Ethnic Background	Student Respondents	FAO Sample
American Indian	.8%	.4%
Oriental American	1.4	.9
Spanish-surnamed American	3.7	4.7
Puerto Rican	1.0	.4
Black	18.0	23.4
White	72.5	67.2
Other	2.6	2.9
N	(7606)	(9665)

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[22] The matched responses of 5775 students and financial aid officers on the question of ethnic background yields a complete agreement of 92% with a gamma of .91.

Table 2.9 presents selected demographic, academic, financial, and attitudinal characteristics of the CWS students from the various ethnic groups. The differences which obtained for CWS students by income classification (Table 2.7) hold for students from different ethnic backgrounds. The most salient factors include:

(1) Demographic Characteristics

(a) The minority CWS student comes from a family with a lower mean income than the white student.[23]

(b) The head of his family is less likely to be the father, and when it is, he tends to be a common laborer or among the unemployed. Correspondingly, every fifth black or Spanish-speaking student comes from a family with a history of having received welfare.

(c) The subtle differences among these group cultures come to the fore in the comparisons of mother's and father's education. Close to one-half of the Spanish-speaking parents have not recieved education beyond the 8th grade, and one-third of the black fathers fall into this same class. In all cases, a higher percentage of the mothers continue their educations beyond grammar school than do the fathers.

(d) If he has an older sibling, the black or Spanish-speaking student is more likely than the white or Oriental to be the first child in the family to attend college.

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[23] In almost every instance, the Orientals are similar to whites; the blacks and Spanish-speaking Americans--including the Puerto Ricans share similar characteristics and most indicators depict them as more "disadvantaged" than whites in this group of CWS participants.

TABLE 2.9

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENT RESPONDENTS BY RACE OR ETHNIC BACKGROUND[a]

Selected Characteristics	Black	Spanish-Speaking American	Oriental	White
Demographic				
Family income under $3000	28.6% (1130)	24.3% (309)	11.3% (88)	9.9% (4873)
Father family head	62.3% (1104)	76.6% (248)	83.3% (78)	81.3% (4493)
Family head a laborer or unemployed	40.6% (1061)	33.7% (246)	19.2% (78)	14.7% (4470)
Family received welfare	21.2% (1106)	22.2% (248)	2.6% (78)	8.4% (4522)
Father had less than eight years education	31.5% (1029)	48.4% (246)	26.0% (73)	11.8% (4434)
Mother had less than eight years education	14.2% (1076)	43.0% (249)	21.6% (74)	5.7% (4479)
First to attend college (has older sibling)	35.3% (807)	39.4% (180)	16.7% (54)	28.0% (2881)
Grew up in large city	24.8% (1123)	18.7% (252)	25.3% (79)	10.9% (4547)
Grew up in a rural area	40.3% (1123)	41.3% (252)	31.6% (79)	48.3% (4547)
Academic				
Enrolled in college preparatory program in high school	43.5% (1070)	32.5% (243)	55.3% (76)	57.2% (4496)
Have participated in Upward Bound or Educational Talent Search	11.0% (1113)	4.4% (251)	6.5% (77)	2.5% (4528)

TABLE 2.9--Continued

Selected Characteristics	Black	Spanish Speaking American	Oriental	White
Academic--continued				
Have used one or more supportive services	63.7% (1132)	53.8% (253)	44.3% (79)	36.4% (4584)
First decided to attend college during senior year or later	29.8% (1084)	34.8% (244)	16.2% (74)	22.7% (4485)
Less than half of high school class went to college	59.7% (1112)	51.4% (245)	41.8% (79)	44.0% (4507)
Mean SAT-Verbal	424 (183)	479 (15)	549 (15)	549 (980)
Mean ACT	16.8 (118)	20.5 (40)	20.8 (10)	26.9 (813)
Mean GPA	2.29 (1036)	2.43 (227)	2.67 (70)	2.71 (4222)
Financial				
Low cost primary consideration	40.6% (1045)	53.3% (242)	41.3% (75)	34.3% (4368)
Financial aid most important in choosing college	53.7% (1083)	58.6% (249)	49.3% (75)	40.3% (4472)
Would not have been able to go to college without job	34.8% (1094)	25.5% (247)	5.4% (74)	14.5% (4475)
Mean total financial aid	$1307 (1053)	$1347 (242)	$1221 (72)	$1299 (4355)
Financial aid will not cover expenses	61.6% (1091)	51.0% (243)	46.8% (77)	42.8% (4452)
Mean additional amount needed	$477 (628)	$620 (113)	$670 (34)	$671 (1755)

TABLE 2.9--Continued

Selected Characteristics	Black	Spanish-Surnamed American	Oriental	White
Financial--continued				
Mean parental contribution	$433 (318)	$436 (78)	$571 (30)	$626 (2310)
Mean CWS earnings	$532 (964)	$588 (217)	$543 (69)	$524 (4065)
Receive EOG	58.1% (1020)	52.5% (236)	31.9% (72)	36.2% (4047)
Receive NDSL[b]	51.8% (971)	37.0% (200)	34.3% (70)	42.1% (4160)
Attitudinal				
Very satisfied with college	27.5% (1109)	41.7% (252)	29.1% (79)	46.7% (4527)
Want a college with intellectual challenge	13.3% (752)	12.2% (188)	16.4% (67)	21.8% (3862)
Plan graduate or professional degree	54.2% (1111)	40.5% (252)	40.5% (79)	45.7% (4531)
Expect to enter "prestige"[c] occupation	19.5% (1015)	26.8% (224)	18.1% (72)	22.1% (4155)
Very sure about occupational choice	59.2% (1100)	58.8% (250)	41.8% (79)	54.0% (4514)

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[a] The small number of Indians responding to the questionnaire prohibits presenting a separate profile for this group.

[b] It is interesting to note, although the figures are not presented here, that while a higher percentage of blacks than whites participate in NDSL, the average loan for the white student is almost $100 higher than for the black one.

[c] College teaching, research, medicine, law, ministry, architecture, or engineering.

(e) Minority students are more likely to have grown up in a large city. While less likely than their white counterparts to come from a rural area, substantial numbers from these remote areas are finding their way to college.

(2) Academic Characteristics

(a) Compared to the white or Oriental student, blacks and Spanish-speaking students are less likely to have been enrolled in a college preparatory curriculum in high school.

(b) For some of the blacks, this lack of exposure to college calibre work is compensated by the number participating in the Upward Bound or Educational Talent Search Programs. But these programs reach very few of the CWS students from the other minority groups. In addition, close to two out of three blacks and about one out of two of the Spanish-speaking students take advantage of at least one of the supportive services offered by the college.

(c) Correspondingly, the minority student is more likely to have made a late decision to attend college. This finding is further reflected in the high number reporting that less than one-half of their class went on to college.

(d) On the performance scales, the number of scores available for Orientals and Spanish-speaking Americans is too small for gleaning meaningful inferences, but the differences between blacks and whites are pronounced. On the SAT-Verbal, the black average falls a full 125 points below the level attained by the group of white students. The same pattern appears in the mean ACT scores, with a spread of ten points on a range restricted to 35 points.

(e) Actual college performance does nothing to change the pattern. The Orientals are more or less on a par with the whites and the Spanish-speaking straddle the gap separating blacks from whites.

(3) Financial Characteristics

(a) All groups of minority students are more likely to cite the low cost of the college or the availability of financial aid as prime considerations in their decisions to attend the institution in which they are enrolled.

(b) Correspondingly, the black or Spanish-speaking student more often states that without a CWS job he would have been unable to attend college.

(c) Although the total amount of their financial aid is higher than that for either the Oriental or white student, a higher percentage of the black and Spanish-speaking students state that the aid they receive is insufficient to cover basic expenses. However, the additional aid required is markedly less for the black student and slightly lower for the Spanish-speaking student than for either of the other two groups.

(d) In keeping with mean family income, the expected parental contribution falls precipitously when moving from Caucasian to black.

(e) On the average, the Spanish-speaking student is looking forward to earning approximately $50 more from his CWS employment than any of the other students, but these higher earnings seem to be no hindrance to his receiving an EOG and may actually serve to negate the need for loan funds. But nowhere is the relationship among the three federal financial aid programs consistent. More blacks participate in both the EOG and NDSL programs. Orientals are least likely to participate in either of the other two programs; and a few more whites have loans than grants.

(4) Attitudinal Characteristics

(a) Neither the black nor the Oriental student tends to be very satisfied with the college they attend.

(b) Minority students are less likely than whites to look for a college which will provide intellectual challenge.

(c) While more blacks anticipate working toward a graduate or professional degree, they are no more likely to expect to enter a "prestige" occupation.

(d) On the other hand, a smaller number of the Spanish-speaking students plan to enter graduate or professional school, but the highest number are aiming toward one of the "prestige" occupations. This same group of students, along with the blacks, are most certain about their occupational choices.

It is clear that the students participating in the CWS Program are a relatively less advantaged group. For the minority student or the one from a low income family, the need for academic or financial assistance is accentuated. Financial constraints are compensated by monetary assistance provided by all levels of government and by private donors. Despite these efforts, many students are still of the opinion that the aid they receive is not adequate to cover their basic expenses.

The long-range effects of these increasing numbers of low-income/minority students on all aspects of higher education--faculty, curricula, values, standards--have yet to be analyzed, just as the benefits of supportive services will require longitudinal study for assessment. At this point, only the initial effects of federal financial aid can be examined.

Currently, there are three forms of federal aid available for the low-income students who would not be able to attend college without supplementary funds. This aid is provided in the form of grants, which are totally unobligated funds; loans, which place an obligation against future income; or earnings from part-time employment under the Federal College Work-Study Program. While all students participating in this study earn a portion of their college expenses by working at a CWS job, many also receive grants under the EOG program, or loans under the NDSL program. Chapter Three, therefore, turns to an analysis of CWS earnings as part of the student's federal financial aid package and as a component of the total costs of attending college.

CHAPTER THREE

CWS EARNINGS AS FINANCIAL AID

Abstract

In this chapter, CWS earnings are presented first as an integral part of the overall tripartite federal aid program and second as a proportion of the basic cost of attending a post-secondary institution. Section A notes the characteristics of the students whose CWS earnings constitute the sole source of federal aid and of those whose earnings are supplemented by both EOG and NDSL or by just a grant or loan. Section B uncovers the relative importance of CWS earnings in paying the cost in making it possible to continue education beyond high school. On the average, these earnings are paying close to one-half of the tuition and room and board charges combined.

CHAPTER THREE

CWS EARNINGS AS FINANCIAL AID

The success of a financial aid program is primarily measured by the effect it has in opening the doors of post-secondary institutions to those who would not normally be able to finance their education beyond high school. The previous chapter indicated that compared with a national sample of college freshmen, students enrolled in the CWS Program are drawn disproportionately from minority backgrounds and from families with relatively low incomes.

However, the CWS Program is more than simply a means of financing an education. The other aspects of CWS employment as envisioned by those who designed the program and those who administer it are expressed in the description of a "model" program in the Introduction to the CWS Manual.[1]

> *One of the most striking features of the College Work-Study Program at this institution is the extent to which the jobs provided afford the students opportunities to use and further develop their skills, creativity, sense of awareness, and responsibility. At the same time, the College Work-Study students are performing worthwhile services which might otherwise be left undone, due to lack of money and staff on the part of the institution and the other organizations involved. Through this program, students are given an opportunity to broaden their educational experience by participating in numerous phases of academic and community life while earning a portion of their educational costs.*

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[1] CWS Manual, p. VI.

The last objective mentioned is "...earning a portion of their educational costs." Other explicit goals of the program are for students to "... use and further develop their *skills*, *creativity*, *sense of awareness*, and *responsibility*."[2] The institution is also mentioned as a beneficiary of the program in that it may be in a position to provide "...worthwhile services which might otherwise be left undone." In other words,

> *...within its student financial aid framework, the College Work-Study Program can serve a multitude of purposes for the benefit of students, institutions, and the larger community as well.*[3]

Each of these aspects of the CWS program will be examined in determining the effectiveness of the program. While it is important to ask what kinds of jobs students hold, defraying a portion of educational costs is the major requisite of the CWS program. Accordingly, this chapter examines the CWS program solely as a form of financial aid. What portion of the costs of post-secondary education do earnings cover? How many and which students would have been unable to attend college without a CWS job? What other means would students have utilized to meet the costs of their higher education had they not been offered CWS employment?

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[2] Emphases added.

[3] CWS Manual, *op. cit.*, p. vi.

TABLE 3.1

HOW CWS STUDENTS FINANCE THEIR EUDCATION BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL

Form of Financial Aid	Percent
EOG	40.7%
NDSL	44.7
Other loan	18.8
Personal savings or gifts	44.5
College scholarship	27.7
State scholarship	11.8
Summer earnings	53.0
Other term-time employment	21.1
Spouse, if married	69.0
(N)	(7830)

A. CWS and Other Financial Aid

Just a few of the students participating in the CWS Program state that the availability of financial aid was not an important consideration in their decisions to attend their present college.[4] Stated differently, almost all students perceive financial aid as an important factor in obtaining the benefits of higher education. Still, less than 20% say that they would not have been able to attend college had no CWS employment been available. Clearly, CWS is not viewed as the sole recourse to employment; fully 53% of these students would have looked for another type of job if the CWS job had not been offered. Nor is work their only source of funds. As Table 3.1 indicates, over 40% receive funds under each of the other two Federal programs administered by the DSFA, with 41% having grants and 45% loans. A comparable number rely on personal savings to meet expenses; in addition, 28% receive scholarships from the college and another 12% from the state. Even more significantly, 53% pay part of these costs from summer earnings, and 21% hold a term-time job other than through their CWS employment. More than two-thirds of the married students are dependent upon their spouses for part of their sustenance. It appears then that the CWS job is but one source of funds for meeting the costs of attending college, and that most students require assistance above and beyond the limited amount they are able to earn from CWS employment.

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[4] Only 4.7% of more than 7500 student respondents (See Table A.3.1).

The extent to which CWS earnings are supplemented by other forms of federal financial aid differs among types of institutions. Table 3.2 shows that CWS is most frequently the only federal source of financial aid at the private two-year college. Many of these schools are classified as proprietary and are barred from participation in the EOG Program. At the private university and four-year college, student respondents are more likely to participate in at least two of the federal programs, and these same students represent the highest relative number receiving funds under all three of the federal programs. At public institutions, CWS

TABLE 3.2

FEDERAL FINANCIAL AID FOR FAO SAMPLE BY SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS[a]

Selected Characteristics	(N)	CWS Only	CWS+ NDSL	CWS+ EOG	All Three
Type/Control					
Private university	(503)	35.3%	34,0%	9.1%	21.6%
Public university	(2218)	42,7	27,4	12,1	17,9
Private four-year	(2042)	30.8	26.8	14.0	28.4
Public four-year	(2457)	48.6	20.1	14.9	16.5
Private two-year	(293)	64,5	9.6	16.4	9.6
Public two-year	(2161)	56.5	7.2	28.2	8.1
Federal Region					
I	(540)	36.7%	28.9%	14.4%	20.0%
II	(717)	52.7	19.1	15,2	13.0
III	(838)	42,1	23,5	14.2	20.2
IV	(2075)	44,7	21,4	16.2	17.7
V	(1647)	36,7	23.9	17,7	21.7
VI	(1360)	49.3	16,9	17,3	16.5
VII	(646)	52,0	18.6	15.5	13.9
VIII	(604)	45,4	22.7	17,1	14,9
IX	(907)	47,2	16.5	20,7	15,5
X	(440)	50,5	16,4	16,1	17.0
Racial Composition					
Predominantly white	(8739)	46.0%	21.1%	16,4%	16.4%
Predominantly black	(1035)	35.9	18.3	18,8	27.0
Preference (in awarding jobs) generally given to those ineligible for other forms of aid[b]					
Yes	(950)	52,9%	12.4%	22.1%	12.5%
No	(2497)	39,2	25,2	14.7	20.9

[a] Data provided by financial aid office.

[b] Source of data: Institutional Questionnaire

constitutes the single federal source of financial aid for the majority of students.

In part, the regions reflect these same differences in that certain types of institutions dominate in some regions. Region II has a concentration of low-cost public institutions, but in Regions I, III and V private high cost schools are more numerous. It is possible too that some variation in packaging reflects different value orientations in various regions of the country.

Another instance of marked variability in the distribution of aid resources appears in the percentages reported for schools by racial classification. Contrasts in the parental income of students attending these schools (See Table 2.5) account for the fact that fewer students at predominantly black institutions than at predominantly white ones have no federal aid other than CWS.

That the philosophy of program administrators is reflected in the distribution of aid is suggested in the last item of Table 3.2. A far greater number of students are solely dependent upon their CWS jobs for support if they are attending schools in which the financial aid officer admits to giving preference in filling jobs to students who are not eligible for other kinds of aid. More than half of the students (53%) in these schools have CWS jobs but receive neither NDSL's or EOG's. In schools where no preference is given, only 39% have CWS jobs exclusively.

In scanning Table 3.3, it is apparent that the packaging of federal financial aid is more closely related to student differences than to institutional differences. Low-income students are more likely than others to have their CWS earnings supplemented by an EOG or by both of the other two federal programs. In the highest income category, close to 60% of the CWS students receive no other federal assistance. If additional aid is provided, it is usually in the form of a loan; these students stand little chance of receiving grants. The mean family income for the recipient groups tends to confirm the fact that grants are given disproportionately to the lowest income students. This underlying income factor is reflected in the distribution of funds within the ethnic groups, and is similar to what might be predicted. In looking back to Table 2.9, it is clear that the mean income for the blacks is well below the level reported for the other ethnic groups. Accordingly, blacks are most likely compared to the others, to receive aid under all three federal programs, least likely to receive no federal assistance other than CWS. The Spanish-speaking tend to have a relatively high percentage in the CWS only category, with an equally high number receiving grants and the lowest number carrying long-term debt.

The contrast between the types of support for the dormitory and home resident are worthy of note. Over one-half of the home residents are dependent upon support from only one of the federal programs. The percentage drops to approximately 30% for the dormitory residents, and the number in this class carrying loans exceeds 50% as compared to the 20% who live at home.

TABLE 3.3(a)

FEDERAL FINANCIAL AID FOR FAO SAMPLE BY SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Characteristics	Total	CWS Only	CWS+ NDSL	CWS+ EOG	All Three
All Students	(9774)	44.9%	20.8%	16.7%	17.6%
Parental Income					
Under $3000	(2248)	39.5%	17.2%	22.2%	21.2%
$9000 or more	(1667)	60.8%	33.1%	2.8%	3.3%
Mean Parental Income	$5717 (9354)	$6455 (4094)	$6789 (1910)	$4553 (1497)	$4619 (1574)
Ethnicity					
Black	(2213)	33.4%	17.3%	22,3%	27.0%
Caucasian	(6265)	49.0	23.1	14.0	13.9
Spanish-speaking	(486)	45,3	10,5	25.1	19.1
Oriental	(86)	45.3	18,6	19,8	16,3
Mean Parental Contribution	$588 (4348)	$658 (2303)	$697 (1045)	$352 (467)	$362 (409)
Percent for Whom Parental Contribution is Expected	46.4% (9366)	56.6% (4067)	54.8% (1907)	30.6% (1524)	25.4% (1608)
Mean CWS Earnings	$611 (9774)	$640 (4391)	$596 (2037)	$617 (1630)	$549 (1716)

TABLE 3.3(b)

FEDERAL FINANCIAL AID FOR FAO RESPONDENTS BY SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Characteristics	Total	CWS Only	CWS+ NDSL	CWS+ EOG	All Three
Student Residence					
Dormitory	(2671)	31.3%	25.3%	17.2%	26.2%
Home with family	(1604)	56.4	11.6	23.3	8.7
Sex					
Male	(2406)	43.0%	21.4%	19.0%	16.6%
Female	(3565)	40.2	21.0	18.5	20.3
Student Classification					
Independent	(2271)	41.7%	21.7%	17.7%	18.9%
Parent-supported	(3645)	41.2	20.9	19.4	18.5
College Expenses Paid By:					
Personal Savings					
Yes	(2709)	45.5%	22.0%	15.8%	16.6%
No	(3341)	38.1	20.5	21.0	20.4
Spouse (if married)					
Yes	(488)	54.9%	25.4%	11.3%	8.4%
No	(207)	41.5	29.0	13.5	15.9
State scholarship					
Yes	(708)	41.4%	18.4%	21.3%	18.9%
No	(5342)	41.4	21.5	18.4	18.7
Summer earnings					
Yes	(3200)	41.5%	23.0%	17.1%	18.4%
No	(2850)	41.3	19.1	20.6	19.0
Additional term-time job					
Yes	(1282)	44.4%	21.3%	16.2%	18.1%
No	(4768)	40.6	21.1	19.4	18.9

Two factors stand out for their negligible role in the distribution of federal financial aid. Despite the fact that females are overrepresented in CWS, sex does not enter into packaging of federal funds. A few more women students receive aid under all three programs and a few less rely on job earnings alone, but the differences are slight. Whether the student is parent-supported or independent has no direct bearing on the percentages receiving the various combinations of federal funds. But the size of the parental contribution is related to whether a CWS job will be supplemented by a loan or a grant, by both of these aid forms, or by neither of them.

In most cases, the federal monies which enable a student to defray his college expenses do not meet total educational costs. The amount available is expanded by a parental contribution, self-help endeavors, or other sources of financial aid. The relationship between the design of a federal financial aid package and the mean expected parental contribution has just been shown. The last part of Table 3.3 introduces some other interesting factors. A higher percentage of the students who draw upon personal savings or who have spouses to help pay their college expenses are able to sustain themselves with the earnings from their CWS job alone. When such resources are available, a CWS job is less likely to be supplemented by a federal grant; and for a student being assisted financially by a spouse, the proportion relying on loan funds is much lower. Interestingly, however, whether the student holds a state scholarship, works during the summer, or has other term-time employment to help meet the costs of attending college bears little or no relationship to the distribution of federal financial aid.

In sum, CWS employment alone, is reserved for the student whose family can afford a relatively large contribution or for those who can dip into personal savings to meet educational expenses. A federal loan or grant supplements CWS employment when college costs are particularly high or when parents are less able to provide financial support.

When CWS employment is combined with other federal aid, as Table 3.4 indicates, the student is more likely to spend his earnings on room and board or commuter costs. On the other hand, if CWS earnings are the only form of federal aid, the student tends to apply his check to tuition charges. This reflects the fact that CWS is more frequently packaged with other forms of federal aid for students who live away from home. Whether or not CWS earnings are supplemented by other federal aid, approximately two-thirds of the students report that their earnings help defray basic living expenses, and 45% report that at least part of their paycheck is spent on books and supplies.

While almost half of the respondents state that the financial aid they receive is inadequate to cover college expenses, this percentage is a constant whether CWS earnings are accompanied by loan or grant funds. However, those who receive supplemental EOG's report less additional money is required to meet their expenses.

The most salient finding in Table 3.4 is that the CWS job--without a federal loan or grant--is reserved for the student whose decision

TABLE 3.4

SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS BY
PACKAGING OF FEDERAL FINANCIAL AID
(FAO Respondents)

Selected Characteristics	CWS Only	CWS+ NDSL	CWS+ EOG	All Three
Percent spending CWS earnings on:	(2506)	(1281)	(1132)	(1131)
Tuition and fees	37.6%	34.0%	33.0%	33.8%
Room and board	33.1	43.1	40.4	37.8
Books and supplies	47.1	44.0	47.5	43.8
Basic living expenses	66.6	62.8	68.2	62.5
Percent saying financial aid will not cover college expenses	45.8% (2420)	48.0% (1253)	47.2% (1118)	48.0% (1113)
Mean additional amount needed	$670 (1001)	$720 (573)	$481 (485)	$543 (510)
Percent saying financial aid was primary factor in decision to attend college	29.7% (2417)	43.4% (1246)	54.9% (1079)	63.8% (1107)
Percent saying without CWS job would have been unable to attend college	12.1% (2447)	17.2% (1253)	28.0% (1109)	27.3% (1111)

to attend college was relatively uninfluenced by the availability of financial aid. Similarly, only one in eight students whose federal aid is restricted to the earnings from his CWS job, is likely to report that had CWS employment not been available he would have been unable to attend college.

B. CWS as a Percent of College Costs

Perhaps the relative salience of CWS in defraying the costs of higher education is better seen by examining the earnings as a percentage of basic college costs, which include the tuition and fees levied by the college in addition to room and board charges or the equivalent commuter costs. On the average, CWS earnings cover 45% of these costs. As Table 3.5 indicates, the proportion of those for whom CWS earnings contribute less than 20% or more than 60% toward college costs varies from one type of institution to another, In public institutions, two or three out of each four students is expected to earn enough to pay 40% or more of these basic costs, At the private school, on the contrary only one or two students out of each six will be able to defray the same proportion of these costs with his CWS paycheck.

The average contribution of CWS earnings to total college costs does not vary substantially among institutions of different racial composition but differences do appear in the overall distribution. In predominantly black institutions, CWS funds are less likely to cover either the smallest or largest proportion of total costs. In the selective schools, which tend to be private and more costly, CWS earnings cover a smaller proportion of basic costs; in low-selectivity or open-admission

TABLE 3.5

CWS AS A PERCENT OF BASIC COLLEGE COSTS BY INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS (FAO Sample)

Institutional Characteristics	(N)	CWS Earnings as Percent of Basic Costs				
		Less Than 20%	20-39%	40-59%	60% or More	Mean Percent
Type/Control						
Public						
University	(2208)	7.8%	33.9%	36.3%	22.0%	47.9%
Four-year	(2183)	9.7	32.0	29.8	28.4	49.5
Two year	(1845)	6.9	20.3	24.8	47.9	65.3
Private						
University	(603)	44.9	40.0	7.6	7.5	28.3
Four-year	(2041)	42.0	40.8	13.4	3.8	26.1
Two-year	(293)	35.2	30.4	21.8	12.6	33.2
Racial Composition						
Predominantly white	(8138)	20.4%	30.7%	24.1%	24.8%	45.7%
Predominantly black	(1035)	8.2	46.7	32.5	12.7	41.2
School Selectivity[a]						
High	(1059)	35.9%	37.4%	18.2%	8.5%	29.8%
Medium	(1268)	23.0	38.6	23.0	15.5	37.3
Low	(1767)	18.4	32.8	24.7	24.1	44.9

TABLE 3.5--Continued

Institutional Characteristics	(N)	CWS Earnings as Percent of Basic Costs				
		Less Than 20%	20-39%	40-59%	60% or More	Mean Percent
Federal Region						
I	(530)	45.7%	32.6%	11.7%	10.0%	29.5%
II	(589)	32.9	36.5	14.6	16.0	35.5
III	(830)	22.0	40.2	21.1	16.6	42.3
IV	(2075)	10.4	31.7	31.8	26.1	50.3
V	(1431)	25.9	37.4	19.1	17.5	38.1
VI	(1360)	11.9	32.5	27.6	28.0	48.4
VII	(619)	23.7	24.2	29.1	22.9	44.4
VIII	(604)	9.8	27.0	39.1	24.2	49.1
IX	(695)	10.8	30.9	21.3	37.0	56.6
X	(440)	21.8	23.0	22.3	33.0	48.9
Students not eligible for other kinds of aid given preference in CWS jobs[b]						
Generally	(754)	15.4%	32.6%	25.7%	26.3%	48.2%
Never	(2202)	27.3	36.6	21.0	15.0	37.0
Most important CWS goal[b]						
Provide jobs to equip for a vocation or career	(1114)	18.4%	34.0%	25.0%	22.5%	45.0%
Expanding student services at college	(1135)	32.2	33.8	19.6	14.4	36.5

[a] Source: Institutional Questionnaire data transferred to student tape. Total N on which percentages are based is number of FAO Respondents. CWS earnings constitute an average 39% of total costs for this group.

[b] Source of data: Institutional Questionnaire.

type schools the contribution is substantially higher.[5]

Federal Regions differ substantially in the proportion of costs that are met through CWS employment. The average CWS contribution ranges from a high of 57% in Region Nine to a low as 30% in Region One. These gross differences partially represent the variation in institutional characteristics rather than differences in practice from one federal region to another. However, some regional fluctuation persist when control of the institution is taken into account, with differences more pronounced in the public sector than in the private.[6]

It is possible that a regional orientation is reflected both in panel deliberations when applications are reviewed and at the institutional level where the ultimate distribution of funds is determined. While the total amount of federal aid for the student may be contingent upon financial need, the composition of the package--that is, the relative mix of grant, loan, and work funds-- may well reflect preferences of administrators at the regional, state, or institutional level.

The last two items in Table 3.5 tend to confirm the presence of an attitudinal influence in the packaging of student financial aid. If the CWS administrator at a school admits that students not eligible for other forms of aid are given preference in CWS job placement, CWS contributes almost one-half of the basic college costs; if such a preference is never given, the corresponding figure is 37%. For this last group of schools, chances are twice as great that CWS earnings will pay less than 20% of the costs.

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[5] "High selectivity" schools are those which admit 50% or fewer of all applicants; "medium selectivity" schools admit 51-89%, and "low selectivity" schools admit 90% or more of all applicants.

[6] See Table A.3.2 in Appendix A.

Administrative perception of the goals of the CWS Program also relates to the relative weight of CWS in defraying costs. When administrators select providing "...students with jobs that will equip them for a vocation or career" rather than enabling "...college to maintain or expand programs for student services" as the most important goal, CWS earnings are more likely to be a weighty factor in offsetting the cost of attending college.

Now that the relationship of the characteristics of the institution and its CWS administrator to the relative importance of CWS in meeting college costs has been described, the next section will identify students who defray various portions of these costs from their earnings. The data will then be explored to test for consequences of differential ability to underwrite basic costs with CWS earnings.

In Chapter Two (Tables 2.6 and 2.9) it was found that average CWS earnings do not fluctuate substantially from one income or ethnic group to another. But the relative importance of these earnings does vary; for some students CWS earnings cover less than 20% of the basic costs of attending college, while for others these earnings contribute over 60% of basic college costs. For example, the first four columns of Table 3.6 reveal that CWS most frequently diminishes in relative importance as gross family income, expected parental contribution, or additional financial aid increase in amount. Similarly, when the student moves from home to dormitory, an hour's pay tends to cover a smaller fraction of basic costs.

All of the above factors go hand-in-hand with attendance at high cost institutions.[7] In Chapter Two, it was noted that students from high income families frequently attend the more costly schools. The parents of these students can generally contribute a substantial amount toward the cost of attending college. For students lacking parental monetary support, the deficit is compensated by providing financial aid from a variety of sources, but in either case, the relative weight of CWS earnings becomes minimal.

Table 3.6 indicates further that a higher proportion of white than black students are meeting less than 20% of college costs with their CWS wages. The percentage differences between independent and parent-supported students tend to be even higher than those for the two ethnic groups. Over one-fourth of the parent-supported but 17% of the independent students contribute less than 20% to their basic college costs through CWS earnings.

While there are some differences in the percentages defraying between 20-39% or 40-59% of college costs through CWS earnings, there are no really marked deviations; the dramatic differences are detected in the extreme categories. Moving, therefore, to the last category

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[7] Table A.3.3 in Appendix A presents data which indicate that the difference in the mean contribution of CWS earnings to basic college costs between the extreme family income and parental contribution categories is halved when examined separately for students attending public and private institutions.

TABLE 3.6(a)

CWS EARNINGS AS A PERCENT OF BASIC COLLEGE COSTS BY SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS (FAO Sample)

Student Characteristics	(N)	Percent of Basic College Costs				Mean Percent
		Less Than 20%	20-39%	40-59%	60% or More	
Total	(9173)	19.0%	32.5%	25.0%	23.4%	45.2%
Gross Parental Income						
Under $3000	(2105)	12.5%	31.1%	25.9%	30.5%	51.5%
$9000 or more	(1589)	30.2	33.4	20.1	16.2	36.8
Expected Parental Contribution						
None	(4604)	14.7%	32.2%	26.5%	26.6%	48.4%
$500 or more	(2084)	31.9	33.4	19.5	15.2	35.8
Ethnicity						
Black	(2102)	14.5%	36.2%	27.2%	22.1%	45.0%
Caucasian	(5901)	22.2	31.2	24.0	22.5	43.9

TABLE 3.6(b)

CWS EARNINGS AS A PERCENT OF BASIC COLLEGE COSTS
BY SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS
(FAO Respondents)

Student Characteristics	(N)	Percent of Basic College Costs				Mean Percent
		Less than 20%	20-39%	40-59%	60% or more	
Sex						
Male	(2043)	21.8%	31.6%	23.8%	22.8%	43.1%
Female	(3025)	23.6	36.9	22.6	17.0	39.4
Class Level						
Freshman	(1411)	24.5%	35.4%	20.3%	19.8%	40.7%
Senior	(1011)	23.8	34.9	23.7	17.5	38.5
Graduate Student	(205)	21.0	29.8	18.5	30.7	50.1
Transfer Student						
Yes	(826)	18.2%	35.4%	25.8%	20.7%	43.4%
No	(4238)	23.9	34.6	22.5	18.9	40.3
Residence						
Dormitory	(2394)	29.7%	38.3%	22.1%	9.9%	32.8%
Home with Family	(1277)	17.2	30.7	21.5	30.7	50.4
Student Classification						
Independent	(1877)	17.4%	30.6%	25.8%	26.2%	46.6%
Parent-supported	(3131)	26.2	37.0	21.6	15.2	37.5
Additional Aid Expected						
None	(935)	12.7%	28.7%	25.8%	32.8%	52.4%
$1500 or more	(898)	49.8	28.0	11.5	10.8	28.5

in which CWS earnings in relation to costs assume maximum proportions (60% or more), there are four groups in which over 30% of the students earn enough to cover 60% or more of the costs of attending college. These are students from families with the lowest gross income, graduate students, students living at home, and those for whom CWS is the only source of aid.[8]

The mean percents presented in the last column of Table 3.6 are instructive in and of themselves. Overall, CWS earnings are obviously quite important in financing a college education for they meet almost one-half of basic college costs for the group as a whole. More than one sub-group of students, however, reaches or even exceeds this half-way mark in the ability to underwrite the cost of attending college. Again, these are the lowest income student, the graduate student, the student living at home, and the one anticipating no additional financial aid. On the other hand, there are only two groups for whom the mean input from earnings falls to less than 33% of costs--the dormitory residents (for whom room and board charges are much greater than the subsistence allowance for the commuting student) and the students expecting to receive financial aid amounting to $1500 over and above CWS earnings.

In sum, CWS contributes a substantial share of basic college costs for the relatively low-income student who expects little or no parental contribution, or for the student without additional financial aid. CWS earnings, on the other hand, defray only a small portion of the costs of attending college for the relatively high-income student whose parents help finance his higher education or for the low-income student whose earnings are supplemented by other forms of financial aid.

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[8] These values, as well as others in the column, tend to be the inverse of those appearing in the "less than 20%" column.

The preceeding analysis of differences in the extent to which CWS earnings help cover college costs is predicated on the assumption that the relative importance of CWS earnings may affect the student's attitude toward term-time employment and toward his CWS job. If a student's wages defray a high percentage of the costs of his education, it is likely that he will hold a relatively positive attitude about term-time employment in general and his CWS job in particular. His counterpart who receives scholarship aid may well feel that a slightly higher grant would obviate the necessity of working--especially when his earnings pay only a small fraction of basic college costs.

Table 3.7 confirms the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between the relative importance of CWS and attitudes toward job and work, Three out of five students who earn 60% or more of their basic college costs agree that it is good to work to pay for college, and more than two out of five find that their jobs provide relief from the boredom of school. Among students whose earnings defray less than 20% of college costs, the corresponding percentages are 10% less for each item.

TABLE 3.7

STUDENT RESPONSES TO SELECTED ITEMS
BY RELATIVE WEIGHT OF CWS EARNINGS
IN COVERING BASIC COLLEGE COSTS
(FAO Respondents)

Student Reported Information	CWS Earnings as Percent of Total Costs	
	Less than 20%	60% or more
Agree that most students better off if work to help pay for college	51.7% (1158)	61.7% (974)
Find job is relief from boredom of school	31.8% (1147)	41.1% (963)
Very satisfied with CWS job	47.0% (1080)	62.8% (888)
Checked at least four advantages of job	37.6% (1129)	57.4% (965)
Hours worked per week		
Less than 10	45.1 (1019)	7.3% (803)
15 or more	20.3 (1019)	73.0 (803)
Could get better grades if didn't have to work	23.7% (1158)	29.1% (970)
If CWS job not available, probably would not have been able to go to college	10.9% (1160)	25.2% (977)
Aware that government pays most of salary	78.9% (1154)	85.2% (968)

But the differences between these two groups is even greater for job satisfaction. Less than one-half of the low relative importance group state that they are very satisfied with their CWS jobs, but the number increases to 63% in the high importance group. Similarly, among students whose earnings are relatively more important in defraying basic college costs, 57% cite at least four advantages of their jobs; the figure drops to 38% for students whose earnings contribute less than 20% of college costs.

Working to offset college costs is apparently not detrimental to job satisfaction. And work they must! For when their earnings defray 60% or more of college costs, three out of four are committed for the maximum number of hours per week, and only a small percentage are able to manage if scheduled for less than ten hours each week. The figures are entirely different in the less than 20% category. Among this group only one out of five works maximum time, but close to one-half have a work week that is shorter than 10 hours.

The differences between these two groups in time spent on the job may well be connected to the variations in their feeling that CWS employment has hampered their ability to achieve higher grades. For students whose earnings defray a major portion of college costs are also more frequently of the opinion that they could get better grades if they didn't have to work. However, these same students are frank to admit that had no CWS job been available, they probably would not have been able to go to college at all. The ratio of the number holding this view changes from one in four to one in nine as the relative importance of earnings diminishes.

At this point, a tangential question can be answered. Are these two groups equally aware that the federal government pays most of their salary? Interestingly enough, they are not. While the difference is not great, the fact that students heavily reliant upon CWS employment are more frequently cognizant of the federal government as their benefactor cannot be disputed.

In Table 3.5 it was seen that students whose earnings contribute a major portion to basic costs tend to be in schools with student-oriented CWS program administrators. In such financial aid offices, it may be that greater effort is devoted to creating interesting jobs, to selective placement of students, or to follow-up counselling of students in order to maximize job satisfaction. Contributing, therefore, to the positive attitudes toward work among the students whose CWS earnings defray a large percentage of costs may be the attitudes and goals of program administrators at the institution in which students are enrolled.

This chapter has exdmined the CWS program as a means of defraying basic college costs. It has found that supplements to CWS earnings are necessary if institutional costs are high or student need great. The other two federal aid programs--EOG and NDSL--often provide the additional resources. When students can turn to parents for support or have accrued personal savings, CWS is often the only form of federal assistance received. For these students, CWS earnings tend to contribute a major share of the basic cost of attending college. The students most dependent upon these earnings also more frequently express positive attitudes toward work and tend to be very satisfied with their jobs. Thus the relative weight of CWS in financing a college education is an important factor to take into account in assessing the outcomes of the program.

CHAPTER FOUR

COLLEGE WORK-STUDY EMPLOYMENT

Abstract

Chapter Four looks at the jobs held by CWS students. On the basis of the job characteristics indicated by the students, the jobs are assigned one of three ranks. The factors related to jobs with a high, medium, or low rank are examined. The jobs are then classified by relation to the academic or career interest of the student. The students more likely to be employed in their chosen fields are described, and the effect of this type placement on the level of satisfaction derived from both job and college is assessed. The last section of the chapter presents data which suggest the possibility of sex discrimination in CWS employment practices.

CHAPTER FOUR

COLLEGE WORK-STUDY EMPLOYMENT

The previous chapter presents data showing that CWS earnings tend to defray more than one-half of the basic cost of attending college when either costs are low or parental contribution high. While these circumstances apply to approximately one in three students, there are many earning equivalent amounts who are unable to cover as much as 20% of their expenses. In order to reach such a high income level, the student must work close to 15 hours a week during the school year, and increase it to a full 40 hours over the summer. Time, energy, and effort are normal demands of employment; but for the college student, they represent responsibilities that must be met in addition to the requirements of a full academic load. As a consequence, it is expected that the student will derive greater benefit from his CWS job than just dollars to pay college bills. It matters not if the benefits are direct or indirect, but some evidence of personal growth is essential. If the balance sheet should lack entries in the benefits columns, it might be argued that the sizeable expenditure of federal funds supporting the CWS program might be converted into some other form of aid that would be of greater benefit to the needy student and to society as well.

However, in the eight years that have lapsed since the program was initiated, work experience for the college student has gained advocates. Many educators concur with the founders of the program and champion the view that "a sound education is rooted in a background that includes work," and that "certain valuable attitudes, skills, and values inherent in work are not readily attainable in the classroom."[1] These spokesmen have gone so far as to challenge the rationale of traditional curriculum design. A reform movement is in progress on many campuses. Work is being accepted as an integral part of the educational process, and some colleges have devised courses of study with work as the focal point. In addition, many colleges now grant academic credit for time spent on the job.

While the CWS program is primarily for financial gain and is not designed to have this close association with the formal academic program, it is expected to provide worthwhile opportunities which will augment the development of skills and broaden the base of educational experience. This chapter is devoted to assessing the "success" of the CWS program in achieving these non-financial goals.

A. Job Classification and Job Rank

How does one measure the worthwhile dimension of a job? The first step is descriptive; Table 4.1 lists 14 categories of CWS jobs and presents the students' descriptions of these jobs.

Job location (on- or off-campus), pay rates, and the number of hours or days students spend at their CWS jobs vary widely. Another factor should be noted. Students holding similar types of jobs tend to present fairly uniform descriptions of the attributes of these jobs.

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[1] F. C. Adams and C.W. Stephens, *College and University Student Work Programs* (Carbondale Illinois: Southern Illinois University Press, 1970).

TABLE 4.1

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF CWS EMPLOYMENT

Job Classification and Job Rank	(n)	(1) Percent Working Off-Campus	(2) Mean Hourly Pay	(3) Percent Working 5 days or more Per Week	(4) Mean Hours a Week on the Job
Student Respondents[a]	(4566)	(11.1%)	($1.74)	(58.2%)	(13.1)
Job Classification					
Clerical	(1785)	7.7%	$1.70	61.0%	12.8
Library	(746)	4.7	1.68	51.8	12.4
Teaching	(609)	9.2	1.86	53.6	12.6
Security	(356)	9.0	1.67	64.0	12.9
Athletic	(255)	21.2	1.73	61.5	14.5
Food Service or hospitality	(255)	4.9	1.61	64.5	13.0
Tutoring	(228)	21.0	1.78	61.0	12.3
Technician	(135)	8.3	1.88	51.1	13.7
Newspaper	(63)	6.5	1.84	61.3	13.9
Community	(58)	84.2	2.10	54.4	16.7
Agriculture, Horticulture	(58)	14.0	1.67	49.1	13.7
Arts and Crafts	(55)	11.1	1.70	57.7	13.3
Health Professions	(34)	32.4	1.78	50.0	13.8
Government and Judiciary	(29)	63.0	2.20	60.7	15.0
Job Rank[b]					
High	(987)	17.6%	$1.87	56.1%	12.9
Medium	(2264)	9.7	1.71	60.2	13.1
Low	(1820)	7.3	1.69	58.3	12.8

TABLE 4.1--Continued

Job Classification and Job Rank	(n)	Percent Reporting Job Characteristics					
		Regular Hours	Intelligence & Judgment	Make-Work	Technical Skills	Clerical Skills	Physical Exertion
Student Respondents	(4566)	45.0%	52.6%	16.2%	12.7%	43.1%	21.5%
Job Classification							
Clerical	(1785)	48.7%	62.4%	18.7%	5.5%	86.7%	8.7%
Library	(746)	59.1	58.7	19.4	6.2	57.2	22.1
Teaching	(609)	39.2	73.7	16.3	37.6	23.8	15.3
Security	(356)	52.0	25.3	17.7	5.6	3.1	70.8
Athletic	(255)	48.6	46.3	12.2	6.7	12.2	53.3
Food Service, Hospitality	(255)	69.4	27.5	14.1	2.0	5.9	52.2
Tutoring	(228)	50.9	75.4	18.0	11.0	29.4	10.1
Technician	(135)	42.2	74.1	11.9	67.4	23.7	20.7
Newspaper	(63)	39.7	79.4	12.7	65.1	42.9	25.4
Community	(58)	41.4	94.8	10.3	8.6	20.7	31.0
Agriculture, Horticulture	(58)	48.3	56.9	20.7	13.8	8.6	65.5
Arts and Crafts	(55)	38.2	61.8	32.7	40.0	18.2	41.8
Health Professions	(34)	67.6	67.6	5.9	20.6	23.5	35.3
Government and Judiciary	(29)	44.8	79.3	10.3	20.7	44.8	17.2
Job Rank							
High	(987)	42.2%	75.9%	15.9%	31.0%	26.7%	15.7%
Medium	(2264)	48.3	61.3	17.7	10.4	72.0	15.6
Low	(1820)	56.7	47.5	17.9	9.0	30.3	38.6

TABLE 4.1--Continued

Job Classification and Job Rank	(n)	Percent Reporting Job Characteristic		Job Rank
		Responsibility	Opportunity For Advancement	
Student Respondents	(4566)	67.8%	8.0%	
Job Classification				
Clerical	(1785)	77.7%	6.8%	M
Library	(746)	76.8	7.8	L
Teaching	(609)	81.6	11.2	H
Security	(356)	55.6	5.1	L
Athletic	(255)	76.5	11.0	M
Food Service, Hospitality	(255)	60.8	5.5	L
Tutoring	(228)	86.8	11.8	H
Technician	(135)	80.7	15.6	M
Newspaper	(63)	92.1	17.5	H
Community	(58)	94.8	12.1	H
Agriculture, Horticulture	(58)	72.4	10.3	L
Arts and Crafts	(55)	81.8	9.1	M
Health Professions	(34)	88.2	2.9	M
Government and Judiciary	(29)	65.5	10.3	H
Job Rank				
High	(987)	83.8%	11.8%	
Medium	(2264)	78.0	7.8	
Low	(1820)	70.0	7.1	

[a] Includes students holding jobs in above categories during FY 1970.

[b] See Appendix Table A.4.1 for explanation of the "ranking" procedure.

According to the students, certain jobs involve responsibility; some consist of a great deal of make-work; some require intelligence and judgment, others certain technical or clerical skills, and still others, some degree of physical exertion.

Considering the consistency of these responses by the students, descriptions of the attributes of the jobs have been used to rank the jobs into three categories on a relative scale of desirability. In assigning a rank to each job, value judgments could not be avoided. The main assumptions underlying the classification are that "good" jobs require intelligence, judgment, responsibility, and opportunity for advancement,[2] while jobs involving "make-work" are not particularly benefical.

These ranks are further supported by the advantages and disadvantages cited by students with different types of jobs and with general satisfaction with their CWS employment.[3] Table A.4.3 in Appendix A presents the specific advantages and disadvantages mentioned by students in each job classification and it is clear that advantages are more frequently checked for the high ranking jobs, while the reverse holds true for the low-ranking ones.

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[2] See description of a model CWS program in Introduction (p. IV) to CWS Manual, 1968 for evidence that the above qualities are indeed explicitly considered to be positive attributes of an effective CWS program.

[3] A full analysis of job satisfaction appears in Chapter Five.

Table 4.2 on the next page summarizes the data in Table A.4.3 by presenting the ratio of advantages to disadvantages as well as the percent very satisfied with their jobs for each job category and for each job rank. Clearly, again, students' job satisfaction varies directly with job rank.

In sum, student descriptions of their CWS jobs have provided the basis for breaking the jobs into three ranks. In turn, it is clear that the advantages and disadvantages checked by students holding different jobs, as well as their overall satisfaction with these jobs, are closely related to the rank of the job.

It should not be overlooked that students' perceptions of the attributes of their jobs--the basis for the rank assigned-- may themselves be colored by their overall job satisfaction and by the advantages and disadvantages they attribute to their CWS employment. Job rank, in other words, may reflect job satisfaction, rather than vice versa.[4]

The correlates of holding a high, medium, or low ranking CWS job are examined in Table 4.3. While the racial composition of the school makes no difference in the percentage of students holding the various ranks of jobs, students at the university level or in select schools are more likely than those at other types of institutions to hold high-ranking jobs. On the other hand, students attending private four-year schools are disproportionately placed in low ranking jobs.

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[4] The complexity of the relationship between job perception and job satisfaction will be examined in Chapter Five.

TABLE 4.2

RATIO OF NUMBER OF ADVANTAGES TO DISADVANTAGES AND PERCENT OF STUDENTS VERY SATISFIED WITH THEIR CWS JOB BY JOB CLASSIFICATION AND JOB RANK

Job Classification and Job Rank	(n)	Ratio of Number of Advantages to Disadvantages	Percent Very Satisfied with Job
Student Respondents	(4566)	3.6	53.5%[a]
Job Classification			
Clerical	(1785)	3.5	57.9%
Library	(746)	3.1	49.1
Teaching	(609)	3.8	60.7
Security	(356)	2.5	28.5
Athletic	(255)	4.8	67.1
Food Service, Hospitality	(255)	3.1	37.5
Tutoring	(228)	5.1	62.2
Technician	(135)	3.3	57.6
Newspaper	(63)	3.5	60.3
Community	(58)	4.7	70.7
Agriculture, Horticulture	(58)	2.9	54.4
Arts and Crafts	(55)	3.8	63.0
Health Professions	(34)	3.8	61.8
Government, Judiciary	(29)	4.8	62.1
Job Rank			
High	(987)	4.1	61.6%
Medium	(2264)	3.6	59.1
Low	(1820)	3.0	44.9

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[a] It should be noted that an additional 34% are somewhat satisfied and only 12% report that they are dissatisfied with their CWS job.

[b] Includes students holding jobs in above categories in FY 1970.

There is even evidence of Regional differences, with Regions II and IX having fairly equal numbers in both of the extreme categories.

In addition to these institutional characteristics, the attitudes of the financial aid administrator may well have a bearing on the types of jobs available for the students. The institutional respondents ordered a series of suggested program goals on a scale of administrative importance and these responses do imply a dimension of administrative style. Table 4.3 reveals that the proportion of students holding high-ranking jobs increases as the goals move from being institution-centered to those that are more student-oriented. High-ranking jobs are held by only 16% of the students if the program is administered by a person who views the primary goal of CWS as one which will "enable colleges to maintain or expand programs for student services." The corresponding figure is 24% when the primary goal is to "help colleges bring education 'down to earth' and make it more relevant."

In turning to student characteristics, the prime factor is class level. There is no doubt that chances for placement in a high ranking job improve as the student advances academically. Notice that for the graduate student, however, the situation tends to be either high or low with few holding the middle positions.

The student majoring in a biological or physical science is most likely to hold a high-ranked position, but the student in business or education stands little chance of placement in a high-ranking job; however, these students tend to be in the middle level positions rather than swelling the number in the lowest rank.

TABLE 4.3

SELECTED CORRELATES OF JOB RANK

Selected Characteristics	Total	Job Rank		
		High	Medium	Low
A. Institutional Characteristics				
Racial Composition of School				
Predominantly White	(4677)	19.5%	44.5%	35.9%
Predominantly Black	(394)	18.8	45.9	35.3
Type/Control of School				
Private University	(255)	24.3%	48.2%	27.5%
Public University	(1234)	23.8	46.2	30.0
Private Four-Year	(1139)	17.8	38.4	43.8
Public Four-Year	(1292)	17.6	44.1	38.2
Private Two-Year	(152)	14.5	46.7	38.8
Public Two-Year	(999)	17.8	49.3	32.8
School Selectivity				
High	(1036)	25.1%	43.0%	31.9%
Low	(1814)	17.1	43.3	39.6
Region				
I	(288)	23.6%	44.4%	31.9%
II	(329)	28.9	41.3	29.8
III	(446)	21.1	46.2	32.7
IV	(1064)	17.6	44.4	38.1
V	(957)	17.0	43.8	39.2
VI	(644)	15.7	48.9	35.4
VII	(336)	17.6	44.0	38.4
VIII	(325)	19.1	46.2	34.8
IX	(428)	25.9	44.6	29.4
X	(254)	18.5	39.0	42.5
CWS Program Goal Ranked Highest by Program Administrators				
Expansion of College Services	(1060)	16.3%	42.1%	41.6%
Development of Career Skills	(1135)	20.9	45.0	34.1
Making College More Relevant	(386)	23.9	46.4	29.8

TABLE 4.3--Continued

Selected Characteristics	Total	Job Rank		
		High	Medium	Low
B. Student Characteristics				
Class Level				
Freshman	(1317)	12.8%	46.5%	40.8%
Sophomore	(1471)	17.0	45.9	37.1
Junior	(1008)	21.3	44.7	33.9
Senior	(1005)	25.8	43.5	30.7
Graduate Student	(216)	39.4	28.2	32.4
Major Field of Study				
Arts and Humanities	(670)	19.6%	42.1%	38.4%
Biological and Physical Science	(546)	38.1	31.1	30.8
Business	(578)	10.0	58.7	31.3
Education	(1344)	13.2	53.3	33.4
Social Science	(902)	21.1	41.0	37.9
Professional	(338)	21.6	45.0	33.4
Ethnicity				
Black	(784)	19.9%	44.0%	36.1%
Spanish, Puerto Rican	(188)	21.3	51.1	27.7
Other Ethnic	(198)	23.2	38.9	37.9
White	(3768)	19.1	44.9	36.0
Sex				
Male	(2004)	26.8%	30.3%	42.8%
Female	(3011)	14.5	54.2	31.3
Mean GPA	2.65 (4663)	2.74 (892)	2.66 (2089)	2.62 (1682)
Mean SAT Verbal	530 (1076)	555 (237)	533 (454)	524 (385)

TABLE 4.3--Continued

Selected Characteristics	Total	Job Rank		
		High	Medium	Low
B. Student Characteristics (continued)				
Other Students Doing Similar Work				
Yes	(3958)	17.3%	43.9%	38.8%
No	(1016)	27.8	47.7	24.5
Other People Doing Similar Work Have Had:				
More schooling	(558)	26.7%	42.5%	30.8%
Less schooling	(631)	14.6	49.2	35.5
About the same	(3204)	17.2	44.3	38.6
Nobody doing similar work	(434)	30.0	41.9	28.1
How Student First Came to Participate in CWS				
Applied for aid, directed to CWS	(3027)	18.3%	44.6%	37.1%
Applied for job, directed to CWS	(487)	20.5	43.9	35.5
Other[a]	(327)	25.1	39.8	35.2
Student's Choice in Selecting Job				
Entirely student's choice	(1574)	28.1%	42.9%	29.0%
Some choice	(2051)	17.9	46.7	35.2
Little or no choice	(1399)	11.9	44.0	44.1

[a] Many of these students had been employed in positions which were later classified as CWS jobs--often at the initiative of their employers.

While there is little difference in the placement pattern among the ethnic groups, sex and academic ability are associated with the rank of students' CWS jobs. Women students tend to fill jobs at the middle level. While males have a better chance than females of holding a high level job, two out of five find themselves in the low-ranking positions. Higher ability students tend to hold the high level jobs and the lowest level positions are likely to be distributed among students with lower grade averages than their peers.

An interesting correlate of job rank is shown in Table 4.3. Whether the student works with other students or with persons having more schooling than he tends to be reflected in the rank assigned to jobs. Apparently, the most desirable jobs are those in which other students are not doing similar work. If this can be translated into uniqueness of the job, it stands out even more clearly in the next item, for more students are in high-ranked jobs if no one is doing similar work.

Approximately four out of five students work with other students who are doing similar tasks. Even though this type of employment situation may seem to be less desirable, data presented in the next chapter reveal certain advantages that are inherent in jobs which bring students into close working relationships.

The last two items in Table 4.3 focus on two other factors that are related to the rank of the job held. Students were asked how they first came to participate in CWS and how much choice they had in selecting their current jobs. Students have less chance of obtaining a high level job if they apply for financial aid and are directed to Work-Study than when they are referred to CWS through other channels. In addition, those who have been able to exercise a choice in the selection of a job, most frequently fall into the high-ranking category.

When these two factors are viewed together, they suggest that attempts should be made to maximize student choice in job selection, since most of the students participating in CWS are financially needy and will find their way into the program through the aid office rather than through a referral agent. Interviews during the site visits indicated that many institutions assign students to jobs through a placement office, while the financial aid office determines financial eligibility. At some larger schools, the eligibility determination and placement functions are combined within a single office but they are under the aegis of separate administrators. It seems reasonable that optimum matching of students and jobs would be enhanced if trained placement counsellors, rather than overburdened financial aid officers, were responsible for this function.

Such a division of labor is not always possible in small institutions where the financial aid officer has no staff, and serves as a one man dean of admissions, dean of students, teacher, and even football coach.[5] Wherever possible, however, it would appear that the financial aid officer should be relieved of the dual responsibility of eligibility determination and job allocation, and that emphasis be placed on maximizing student preference in the placement process.[6]

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[5] Friedman and Thompson, *op. cit.* p. 185.

[6] The importance of aligning preference with placement is underscored in Chapter Five where student job satisfaction is analyzed.

Until now, the students' own descriptions of their employment have been utilized to assess the types of jobs provided through the CWS program. It has been assumed that a "worthwhile" job is one involving responsibility, intelligence and judgment, relatively high pay, and little make-work. The high ranking jobs seem to be those located off-campus, in particular positions as government or community aides. The best on-campus employment opportunity tends to be teaching, research, or laboratory assistant. These are most frequently held by upperclassmen and graduate students in the biological or physical sciences and by male students. And it should be emphasized that when the student has a degree of choice in the selection of a CWS job, his work is more likely to involve those attributes generally considered to be beneficial.

B. Job Relevance to Academic Major and Career Choice

Another measure of an inherent beneficial aspect of a CWS job might be the extent to which the work is related to the student's academic major or occupational plans. Certainly, an implicit goal of the CWS program is to provide students with jobs which will be useful for their anticipated careers. While two out of three students (Table A.4.3 (a)) indicate that they have acquired skills which will be useful for a career, they were not asked whether the work itself was related either to their major field of study or to their anticipated occupation. However, the student did indicate his major course of study and his occupational choice which permits relating these factors to his CWS job in a rudimentary fashion. For instance, students who plan to be nurses and are employed as health aides were categorized as holding career-related jobs. Similarly, those majoring in sociology and working as community aides were classed as holding major-related jobs. Each academic major and each occupational choice was examined in a similar manner in order to determine which of the fourteen job classes were potentially related to expressed student interests.[7]

Table 4.4 indicates that major- and career-related jobs are somewhat more likely to be held by male than female students, and by students with higher academic averages. There are no ethnic differences, but the student's class level is a strong predictor of his chances of holding a major- or career-related job: graduate students are about twice as likely as freshmen to have jobs which are related to their academic or career interests.

Table 4.4 reveals further that optimum choice in job selection appears to yield double benefit: students with such choice are more likely to hold career- or major-related jobs; and these are the very jobs which were initially described by students as having desirable attributes.

The student working off-campus has a better chance of having a job which relates to his academic or occupational interests. The students staying on campus tend to have jobs which bear little relationship to their plans for the future. It is interesting that those employed in jobs where other students are doing similar work, or to put it in another way, with employees having the same amount of schooling, are less likely to be in major- or career-related jobs. The job which does relate to

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[7] Admittedly this produces a crude measure of relationship. However, it is validated to some extent by student perceptions. Those holding career-related jobs, for example, are more than two and one half times as likely as the others to report that they have become more certain of their career choice as a result of their CWS employment (Table 4.5).

TABLE 4.4

PERCENT OF STUDENTS HOLDING CWS JOBS RELATED TO ACADEMIC MAJOR OR INTENDED CAREER (Student Respondents)

Selected Characteristics	Major-Related Job		Career-Related Job	
Sex				
Male	32.5%	(1895)	24.0%	(2047)
Female	24.0	(2918)	22.0	(3139)
Student GPA				
3.25 - 4.00	30.2%	(1333)	26.2%	(1441)
Under 2.24	25.6	(829)	21.2	(880)
Ethnicity				
Black	25.2%	(763)	23.7%	(815)
White	27.5	(3677)	22.5	(3930)
Class Level				
Freshman	24.1%	(1214)	19.7%	(1332)
Senior	32.2	(991)	26.0	(1079)
Graduate Student	45.8	(190)	37.1	(224)
Choice in Job Selection				
Entirely student's choice	32.8%	(1519)	30.1%	(1650)
Some choice	27.9	(1968)	22.1	(2120)
Little or no choice	20.0	(1332)	15.0	(1428)
Job Rank				
High	74.3%	(950)	63.8%	(1026)
Medium	21.4	(2191)	20.1	(2366)
Low	9.0	(1723)	3.2	(1847)
Job Location				
On-campus	25.8%	(4282)	21.3%	(4592)
Off-campus	41.0	(483)	35.3	(550)

TABLE 4.4--Continued

Selected Characteristics	Major-Related Job		Career-Related Job	
Other Students Doing Same Work				
Yes	25.8%	(3800)	21.3%	(3285)
No	33.1	(970)	27.1	(833)
Other People in Same Work Have Had				
More schooling	33.6%	(530)	31.0%	(465)
Less schooling	22.8	(614)	18.3	(520)
Same schooling	26.0	(3076)	20.6	(2675)
Nobody doing same work	33.3	(412)	30.1	(346)
College Administrator Feels Most Important Goal[a] of CWS Is:				
To provide career-related jobs	28.1%	(1089)	23.5%	(939)
To expand college services	24.0	(995)	18.4	(879)

[a] Aside from providing financial aid.

academic or occupational interest is likely to be one in which no student--in fact, nobody--is doing similar work. Finally, although differences are slight, if the administrator ranks the provision of career-related jobs as the most important goal of the CWS program, students stand a better chance of holding those types of jobs.

Some selected outcomes of employment and their relationship to holding career- and major-oriented jobs are presented in Table 4.5. Students holding jobs in line with their interests are more satisfied, tend to be working at the job they actually prefer, and are more likely to identify four or more advantages stemming from their CWS employment. Specifically, these advantages include a feeling of doing something worthwhile, gaining confidence, and above all, acquiring useful skills.

Students holding major- or career-related jobs are not more likely than their peers to report that their CWS employment has provided advantages of a social nature. Perhaps this is because, as was seen in Table 4.4, those who are working with other students are less likely than those working alone to be holding jobs in line with their academic or career interests.

All in all, students employed in high ranking CWS jobs are also reaping the assumed benefits of employment which is related to their academic major or occupational choice. These jobs are more satisfying for the students and are perceived as yielding certain advantages. On the other hand, irrespective of relationshp to career or major, at least one-half of the students derive satisfaction from their employment and

TABLE 4.5

PERCENT OF STUDENTS REPORTING SELECTED OUTCOMES OF EMPLOYMENT BY RELATIONSHIP OF CWS JOB TO MAJOR AND CAREER
(Student Respondents)

Selected Outcomes of CWS Employment	Relationship of CWS job			
	Academic Major		Intended Career	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Very Satisfied with CWS Job	61.4% (1317)	52.1% (3498)	63.9% (1182)	50.5% (4014)
Prefer the Job Currently Held	70.5% (1076)	42.7% (3003)	75.5% (954)	41.8% (3463)
Checked Four or More Advantages	56.9% (1295)	45.6% (3437)	60.8% (1167)	43.4% (3928)
Job Advantages:	(1329)	(3535)	(1190)	(4049)
Acquired useful skills	77.0%	66.1%	81.8%	65.0%
Learned about people	69.0	71.1	71.9	70.1
Gained more confidence	64.0	59.4	66.3	56.3
Made some friends	56.1	59.7	57.1	58.8
Doing something worthwhile	52.5	42.7	55.4	41.0
More certain about career choice	46.7	20.7	50.9	19.3

appreciate the same benefits even though to a lesser extent. This suggests that job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon with many intermingled components. Chapter V examines this aspect of CWS employment.

C. Sex Discrimination in CWS?

Before moving on, there is a finding that has emerged from the previous analysis which warrants discussion. In light of the increasing emphasis on women's rights and on equality of occupational opportunity for women, the employment opportunities provided for the female CWS student merit more detailed attention. The fact that males are more likely than females to hold high-level, career- or major-related jobs can not be dismissed lightly. One might argue that girls are not majoring in fields conducive to obtaining the better jobs. Table 4.6 points out, however, that males are about twice as likely as females to hold high-level jobs regardless of class level, academic major, or grade average. That women, on the other hand, less frequently hold low-ranking jobs is largely because fifty percent of them are employed in clerical jobs, which fall into the middle rank.[8]

Not only do male students tend to hold the better jobs, but with few exceptions they are paid more than females even when both are employed in similar jobs. Whether this sex differential obtains within the same institution is impossible to determine since the number of students in the sample from each school is limited. However, as Table 4.7 indicates, in every type of institution, and in every region of the

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[8] Table A,4,2,

TABLE 4.6

PERCENT OF MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS HOLDING HIGH RANKING JOBS BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS (Student Respondents)

Selected Characteristics	Sex of CWS Student	
	Male	Female
Class Level		
Freshman	17.4% (639)	9.6% (990)
Sophomore	20.9 (683)	14.7 (1129)
Junior	30.6 (507)	15.5 (749)
Senior	33.5 (586)	19.5 (687)
Graduate student	54.9 (184)	19.8 (101)
Academic Major		
Arts and Humanities	27.2% (291)	13.3% (556)
Biological and Sciences	41.0 (395)	33.1 (302)
Business	14.2 (317)	6.8 (382)
Education	19.1 (367)	11.7 (1234)
Social Sciences	27.8 (543)	16.8 (637)
Professional	37.3 (153)	17.5 (286)
College GPA		
B+ or higher	34.8% (457)	16.1% (925)
B, B-	26.5 (728)	14.9 (1155)
C+ or lower	21.2 (651)	10.4 (695)
High School Rank		
Top 10%	34.0% (603)	15.2% (1299)
Top 25%	23.3 (514)	15.1 (750)
26% or lower	23.3 (648)	12.8 (578)

country, the figure for the male exceeds that for the female. The differences tend to level out when institutions are classified by racial composition since the mean pay for both sexes is identical at predominantly black colleges. Perhaps this is because black institutions spread CWS allocations over a larger number of students, paying all the minimum wage.

It is apparent that a degree of sex stereotyping exists in assigning students to jobs, and is further reflected in the determination of rewards. Currently, complaints of the women's liberation movement that women are not receiving equal treatment in the job market are echoing across the country. The data suggest that the process of discrimination begins even before women enter the "real" job market, thus paving the way for unequal sex treatment in the formal occupational structure.

Perhaps the women's liberation movement should take particular note of the findings contained in Table 4.8. Women students are more easily satisfied with lower-ranking, lower-paying jobs than the men! At the minimum CWS hourly rate of $1.60, 41% of the men but 61% of the women are very satisfied with their jobs. The percentages drop to 39% and 49% for these respective groups on satisfaction from low-ranking jobs, and here again the women are the more satisfied group. Similarly, female students are more likely than males to be very satisfied with their CWS job even if it bears no relationship to their academic or career interests.

TABLE 4.7

MEAN HOURLY PAY FOR MALE AND FEMALE CWS STUDENTS CONTROLLING FOR SELECTED FACTORS (Student Respondents)

Selected Factors	Sex of CWS Student			
	Male		Female	
Job Classification[a]				
Clerical	$1.77	(248)	$1.69	(1484)
Library or Museum	1.73	(207)	1.65	(519)
Teaching, Recreation, Lab.	1.91	(342)	1.80	(251)
Athletic or Recreation	1.71	(204)	1.84	(38)
Security and Maintenance	1.68	(298)	1.67	(44)
Hospitality, Food Service	1.63	(83)	1.60	(161)
Arts and Crafts	1.73	(30)	1.66	(25)
Newspaper, Radio, TV	1.90	(45)	1.69	(17)
Government, Judiciary	2.26	(18)	2.05	(10)
Tutoring, Classroom Asst.	1.82	(97)	1.75	(122)
Social or Community Work	2.03	(26)	2.12	(28)
Technician, Data Process.	1.86	(94)	1.92	(39)
Health Professions	1.82	(18)	1.74	(16)
Other	1.84	(194)	1.74	(193)
Institutional Type/Control				
Private University	$2.04	(129)	$1.84	(131)
Public University	1.88	(530)	1.76	(782)
Private Four-Year	1.75	(452)	1.68	(728)
Public Four-Year	1.70	(537)	1.65	(863)
Private Two-Year	1.78	(70)	1.69	(101)
Public Two-Year	1.71	(464)	1.69	(651)
Federal Region				
I	$1.98	(141)	$1.85	(170)
II	2.00	(152)	1.89	(194)
III	1.76	(204)	1.72	(278)
IV	1.65	(470)	1.62	(673)
V	1.79	(384)	1.72	(627)
VI	1.63	(269)	1.59	(438)
VII	1.65	(115)	1.63	(235)
VIII	1.76	(133)	1.69	(216)
IX	2.01	(207)	1.91	(264)
X	1.81	(107)	1.69	(161)

[a] Agriculture or Horticulture Assistant was eliminated since only 6 females were employed in this category.

CHAPTER FIVE

COMPONENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Abstract

Chapter Five assesses the components of job satisfaction. There is little doubt that the students who have been given an opportunity to choose their jobs are the ones who are most satisfied with their employment. Another factor contributing to maximum job satisfaction is the mesh between the job held and the job the student would like to hold. After identifying these factors, a more detailed analysis of the relationship among them is presented in the next section of the chapter. The final section examines the advantages and disadvantages of CWS employment perceived by the student.

TABLE 4,7--Continued

Selected Factors	Sex of CWS Student			
	Male		Female	
Predominant Racial Composition of Institution				
Black	$1,63	(160)	$1,63	(294)
White	1,79	(2022)	1,70	(2962)
Class Level				
Freshman	$1,68	(552)	$1,64	(890)
Sophomore	1,71	(595)	1,69	(998)
Junior	1,79	(419)	1.71	(649)
Senior	1,80	(457)	1,74	(596)
Graduate Student	2,37	(136)	2,16	(89)
Job Rank				
High	$1.91	(528)	$1.81	(428)
Medium	1,76	(594)	1,70	(1602)
Low	1,72	(834)	1,66	(923)

Moreover, Table 4.8b reveals that similar pay rates are differentially evaluated by the two sexes. At every pay level, more women students regard their salaries as high or about right more frequently than do the males. Apparently, the adolescent female has already been socialized to expect and to be satisfied with a relatively low-paying typically 'female' job.

These findings suggest that a latent dysfunction of the CWS program may be that it is reenforcing old norms regarding a woman's place in the occupational structure and serving as an anticipatory socialization process which will hinder altering these norms. The CWS program may be facilitating the process of equal educational opportunity regardless of financial status, but from the evidence just presented, it is doing little to equalize job opportunities between the sexes.

TABLE 4.8(a)

PERCENT OF MALE AND FEMALE CWS STUDENTS VERY SATISFIED WITH JOB BY SELECTED JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Job Characteristics	Sex of CWS Student	
	Male	Female
Hourly Pay Rage		
Under $1.60	41.7% (235)	50.8% (461)
$1.60	52.1 (876)	60.7 (1525)
$1.61 - $1.80	48.4 (426)	53.8 (654)
$1.81 or more	55.5 (625)	55.3 (593)
Job Rank		
High	59.8% (707)	60.3% (526)
Medium	57.2 (790)	58.9 (1999)
Low	39.1 (1096)	48.6 (1133)
Is Job Related to Academic Major?		
Yes	60.4% (609)	62.5% (694)
No	46.6 (1264)	55.5 (2198)
Is Job Related to Career Plans?		
Yes	61.1% (355)	66.3% (579)
No	47.9 (1211)	54.4 (1975)

TABLE 4.8(b)

PERCENT REPORTING THAT PAY IS HIGH OR ABOUT RIGHT BY SEX AND HOURLY PAY RATE

Hourly Pay Rate	Sex of CWS Student			
	Male		Female	
Under $1.60	57.3%	(239)	60.8%	(459)
$1.60	69.3	(870)	78.6	(1521)
$1.61 - $1.80	67.2	(424)	78.3	(654)
$1.81 or more	70.1	(625)	80.2	(592)

CHAPTER FIVE

COMPONENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Abstract

Chapter Five assesses the components of job satisfaction. There is little doubt that the students who have been given an opportunity to choose their jobs are the ones who are most satisfied with their employment. Another factor contributing to maximum job satisfaction is the mesh between the job held and the job the student would like to hold. After identifying these factors, a more detailed analysis of the relationship among them is presented in the next section of the chapter. The final section examines the advantages and disadvantages of CWS employment perceived by the student.

CHAPTER FIVE

COMPONENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

A. Self-Reported Satisfaction

The sociological literature abounds with examples of unexpected components of job satisfaction. The classical utilitarian approach assumed that pay is the key factor determining such satisfaction, with hours and working conditions (lighting, spacing, etc.), secondary but important factors. The Hawthorne Studies of the 1930's brought to light a whole series of latent components of workers job satisfaction, with emphasis on sociometric or friendship variables. Many studies since then have documented the relatively unimportant role of wage scales and pay rates in determining workers' satisfaction.

It is hardly surprising, therefore, to note, in Table 5.1 that the mean hourly pay rate of the CWS students is stable across the three levels of expressed satisfaction. Apparently, even among members of a new generation just entering the employment market, wages remain a minor component of job satisfaction.

What is more important as Table 5.1 indicates is the relative pay of the CWS student, that is, his perception of the "fairness" of his paycheck relative to the type of work he is doing or has done in the past. For example, students who have previously held jobs which either paid more or required more skills than their present job, are less satisfied with their jobs than those who have not. Similarly, 59%

TABLE 5.1

JOB SATISFACTION BY SELECTED FACTORS

Selected Factors	Total	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Dis-Satisfied
All Students	(7492)	53.3%	34.2%	12.3%
Mean Hourly Pay Rate	$1.72 (5503)	$1.74 (2975)	$1.72 (1842)	$1.72 (640)
Student Held Job in Past Which Paid More				
Yes	(3032)	50.0%	36.7%	13.3%
No	(1738)	60.1	30.8	9.1
Student Held Job in Past Requiring More Skill				
Yes	(3112)	48.6%	36.7%	14.7%
No	(1643)	63.4	30.4	6.3
For His Work Student Feels Pay Rate is				
High or about right	(3984)	58.6%	31.8%	9.6%
Low	(1491)	43.5	38.9	17.6
Student is Paid on Time				
Always	(3451)	57.3%	31.8%	10.9%
Usually, rarely or never	(2047)	50.1	36.7	13.2

of the students who are of the opinion that they receive an equitable, or even a high rate of pay for the work they are doing, report that they are very satisfied with their jobs, but only 44% of those assessing their pay as too low indicate that they are very satisfied.

At first glance, getting paid on time appears to be another component of students' job satisfaction. More who report that they are always paid on time are very satisfied than their counterparts who may sometimes have to wait to be paid. However, as Table 5.2(a) indicates, the promptness of being paid has little to do with deriving satisfaction from the job--more important is whether the job held is a high or low ranking one. By far the overriding factor, as seen in Table 5.2(b), is whether the job held by the student is the one he prefers. Fully 69% of those in jobs which they prefer (compared to other jobs) are very satisfied despite the fact that they don't always get paid on time; and among students who would prefer holding a different job, even when they do get paid on time, only 35% are very satisfied.

Pay and the related factors, therefore, can be summarily dismissed as determinants of job satisfaction.[1] When the student's job has been placed in the high or "worthwhile" class--in keeping with the mandates of the program--he is more likely to be very satisfied regardless of wage and hour factors. But above all, when the job is one which the student himself would have selected if given a preference, wage and hour factors become a matter of relative unimportance.

Table 5.3 further underscores the importance of the student's choice not only in selecting the type of work, but in arranging for the

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[1] See Appendix Table A.5.1(b) for confirmation: Beta=.0140.

TABLE 5.2(a)

PERCENT VERY SATISFIED WITH CWS JOBS BY PROMPTNESS OF PAY AND JOB RANK

Paid on Time	Job Rank		
	High	Medium	Low
Always	65.2% (595)	60.5% (1465)	49.0% (1103)
Usually, Rarely, or Never	55.9 (374)	56.3 (757)	39.3 (669)

TABLE 5.2(b)

PERCENT VERY SATISFIED WITH CWS JOBS BY PROMPTNESS OF PAY AND PREFERENCE FOR JOB HELD

Paid on Time	Holds Preferred Job	
	Yes	No
Always	76.2% (1387)	35.0% (1289)
Usually, Rarely, or Never	69.3 (694)	28.1 (782)

conditions of his CWS employment. Sixty-eight percent of the students whose jobs were entirely of their own choosing, but only 38% who had little or no choice in selecting their jobs, are very satisfied. Similarly, students who were entirely free to arrange their hours have a higher satisfaction rate than their counterparts with little or no choice. And finally, job satisfaction appears to be related to whether the location of the student's work is compatible with his preference for job location.

Overall, among students whose job location and preference mesh, 58% are very satisfied;[2] only 34% of those who are not pleased with the location of their job are very satisfied with the job itself.[3]

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[2] The numbers in parentheses indicate that most students are satisfied with the location of their jobs.

[3] It is interesting to note that most students prefer working--and are working--on-campus. However, among those working on-campus but preferring an off-campus job, only 22% are very satisfied. Similarly, among those for whom job location does not matter, the satisfaction rate is higher for those holding off-campus jobs. (See table below)

PERCENT VERY SATISFIED BY
PREFERRED AND ACTUAL JOB LOCATION

Actual Job Location	Job Location Preferance		
	On-Campus	Off-Campus	No Preferance
On-Campus	57.6% (4099)	21.8% (124)	38.6% (638)
Off-Campus	44.3 (162)	67.2 (162)	59.3 (231)

TABLE 5.3

PERCENT OF STUDENTS VERY SATISFIED WITH THE CWS JOB BY SELECTED "CHOICE" FACTORS

Selected "Choice" Factors	Percent Very Satisfied	
Choice in Job Selection		
Entirely	68.4%	(1727)
Some	54.7	(2255)
Little or none	38.4	(1565)
Choice in Arranging Hours		
Entirely	60.6%	(2845)
Some	50.3	(1846)
Little or none	39.7	(642)
Preferred Job Location		
Yes	58.2%	(4300)
No	33.8	(276)
Student Holds Preferred Job		
Yes	74.0%	(2100)
No	32.2	(2099)

Since the student had been asked to indicate both the type of job currently held and the one he would prefer to hold, it was possible to divide the students into two groups: those employed in the type of job they would prefer (49.0%) and those who are not (51.0%). The last item in Table 5.3 reaffirms the importance of placing students in jobs they prefer holding. Three out of four students (74%) in such jobs are very satisfied while only one in three (32%) who would rather hold a different job is very satisfied with his current CWS employment.

There are many other factors which examined separately appear to be related to the student's satisfaction with his CWS job. Table 5.4 presents some of these factors. Undoubtedly, student's overall satisfaction with college is reflected in his satisfaction with his CWS job. Similarly, his rating of his own job performance as well as his perception of his employer's rating, are both related to his reported satisfaction. Furthermore, certain attitudes which students may hold about work in general seem to be reflected in their level of job satisfaction. In general, those who feel work should be avoided, those who think their grades would be better if they didn't have to work, and those who feel that some students look down on those who have to work their way through college all tend to have somewhat lower levels of job satisfaction.

In order to elucidate the relative importance, however, of all of these factors in students' job satisfaction, a regression analysis was run.[4] This analysis makes it clear that student background characteristics,

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[4] See Appendix A, Table A.5.1 for the weights associated with selected variables.

TABLE 5.4

PERCENT OF STUDENTS VERY SATISFIED WITH CWS JOB BY SELECTED ATTITUDES

Selected Attitudes	Percent Very Satisfied	
Satisfied with College		
Very satisfied	65.7%	(2378)
Somewhat satisfied	47.7	(2394)
Somewhat or very dissatisfied	38.3	(721)
Job Performance (Self-Rating)		
Excellent	61.9%	(1576)
Very good	56.2	(3550)
Good	41.9	(1766)
Fair, poor	19.1	(68)
Perceived Employer Rating		
Excellent	64.7%	(1825)
Very good	56,4	(3393)
Good	36.6	(1609)
Fair, poor	8.9	(79)
Feel Work During School Year Should be Avoided		
Yes	39.3%	(1143)
No	59.9	(3609)
Feel Some Students Look Down On Those Who Work		
Yes	49.4%	(1032)
No	56.3	(3791)
Feel Grades Would Be Better If Didn't Have To Work		
Yes	39.0	(1469)
No	62.6	(2708)

such as ethnicity, income, and residence are negligible factors, when treated in this manner, in explaining job satisfaction. It turns out too that the pay items account for less than 2% of the variance. Similarly, student status as measured by class level, residence on- or off-campus, or Fall 1970 grades, explains very little of the variation in job satisfaction.

Regression analysis further indicates that the attitudes of the students toward term-time employment when taken together explain only about 5% of the variation in job satisfaction. Attributes of the job--responsibility, judgment, intelligence, certain skills--together account for only a minimal amount of the variation in job satisfaction. It appears that the student's evaluation of his pay rate, his work performance, his perception of his employer's rating of his job performance and his overall satisfaction with college are of greater importance.

From a programmatic point of view, it is important to note that the regression analysis confirms the data presented in Table 5.3: the strongest explanatory factors--holding the others constant--are those related to the degree of choice the student has in selecting his job and arranging his hours and whether the student holds the job he prefers.

Even though several of these factors are beyond the control of the financial aid officers, there are others which can be taken into account when aligning students with jobs. In particular those responsible for student placement should be aware of the fact that choice in job selection is a strong predictor of maximum job satisfaction, It might be helpful, therefore, to determine which types of jobs students prefer to hold and how job satisfaction is related to whether students holding different types of jobs prefer these jobs. The next section explores this question.

B. Job Satisfaction and Job Preference

Table 5.5 presents several types of information. The first column shows the percent of students holding jobs in each of the CWS job classifications, while the second column shows the percent who would prefer holding a job in that category. The third column presents the proportion for each job category who both hold and prefer that job; and the last column shows the percent within each job category who would like to hold that type of job but who currently hold a job in a different category.

It is quite apparent that clerical, library, security, and hospitality aides are jobs which few students prefer to hold. Only 2%, for example, opt for the job of security aide while 7% of the CWS students are employed in that category. On the other hand, six times as many students would prefer to be community aides as actually

TABLE 5.5

STUDENT JOB PREFERENCES AND JOB PLACEMENT
BY JOB CLASSIFICATION AND JOB RANK

Job Classification and Job Rank	Percent Holding Job Type	Percent Prefer Job Type	Percent Who Both Prefer and Hold Job	Percent Who Prefer, But Do Not Hold Job Type
(n)	(4931)	(5115)	49.0% (4931)	52.7% (5115)
Job Classification[a]				
Clerical	38.6%	21.9%	48.5% (1901)	17.8% (1122)
Library, museum	15.8	9.0	39.6 (780)	33.0 (461)
Teaching, research	13.4	17.0	68.1 (662)	48.2 (871)
Security or maintenance	7.6	2.0	20.8 (375)	22.0 (100)
Hospitality, food service	5.8	2.2	24.7 (288)	37.7 (114)
Athletic	4.8	8.8	70.6 (238)	62.7 (451)
Tutoring	4.8	9.3	55.7 (237)	72.3 (477)
Technician	2.8	4.5	63.8 (141)	61.0 (231)
Social, community	1.4	9.3	62.0 (71)	90.7 (475)
Newspaper	1.2	4.3	65.6 (61)	81.7 (219)
Arts and crafts	1.1	3.8	64.3 (56)	81.3 (193)
Agriculture	1.1	1.6	65.4 (55)	57.1 (84)
Health professions	.8	3.1	55.0 (40)	86.2 (159)
Government	.5	3.1	69.2 (26)	88.6 (158)
Job Rank				
High	21.4%	43.0%	64.8% (1057)	68.9% (2200)
Medium	48.2	42.2	52.1 (2376)	42.6 (2156)
Low	30.4	14.8	33.0 (1498)	34.9 (759)

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[a] Job categories are ordered by number of students holding positions in each category.

are. Other categories with more aspirants than occupants are teaching and research assistants, athletic aides, media assistants, and government and judicial aides.

Column three tells the same story in a slightly different manner. It is evident that students employed as teaching assistants, or those in the fields of newspaper, radio or television, and community service prefer this type of work. In addition, those who are assistants in athletics, recreation, arts and crafts, and agriculture also express a preference for their present jobs. Students most likely to prefer a different type of job are employed as aides in security or maintenance, food service or hospitality areas, or in the library or museum.

Clearly, large proportions of students are holding one type of job but would prefer to hold a different one. Eight out of ten security or maintenance assistants, and three out of four hospitality or food service aides would rather hold different jobs. This is true also of six out of ten employed in a library or museum, and one out of every two of the large number of students who perform clerical tasks. Assuming the representativeness of the sample, all over the country there are over one hundred thousand young people employed at CWS jobs which they would prefer not holding . In fact, one of every two program students would prefer to be working in a different type job.

The data enable us to determine, not only which type of job students prefer, but also what proportion of students prefer--but do not hold --jobs in the various categories. The last column in Table 5.5 serves, in a sense, as an indicator of unmet student demand, for it uncovers the gaps between student job preference and student job placement. It reveals that there are certain types of jobs with high unmet demand: only about one in ten students who wants to work in community service or as a government or judicial, or health aide, holds that type of job. Similarly, less than two in ten who prefer working as media or arts and crafts assistants are so employed. On the other hand, there is little unmet demand for jobs as clerical workers, security or maintenance aides, or library and museum assistants.

Again, extrapolating from the sample to the universe of employed CWS students (in Fy 1970) there are over one hundred thousand students (53%) who would like to be working at one type of job but hold a job of a different type. And it is clear from these data that it is the jobs with the most desirable attributes--those which have been classified as high rank jobs--which have the highest unmet student demand. Fully 69% of the students would like to, but do not hold high-rank jobs while half that proportion (35%) opt for, but are not employed at, the low-rank jobs.

It is obvious that all students cannot be placed in the jobs of their choice. Everyone cannot be a social or community service worker, a media assistant, or a government or judicial aide. Furthermore, as Table 5.6 reveals, total job satisfaction is not obtainable--even when students have been placed in the job of their choice. Table 5.6 is instructive, however, in that it points out the kinds of jobs which maximize satisfaction when preference and placement mesh, and minimize dissatisfaction when they do not.

TABLE 5.6

PERCENT OF STUDENTS VERY SATISFIED WITH THEIR CWS JOB BY WHETHER STUDENT HOLDS JOB PREFERRED AND BY JOB CLASSIFICATION AND JOB RANK

Job Classification and Job Rank	Student Holds Job Preferred	
	Yes	No
Job Classification		
Clerical	73.8% (916)	37.8% (978)
Library, museum	78.5 (307)	24.2 (467)
Teaching, research	69.6 (447)	33.3 (207)
Athletic	75.4 (167)	29.0 (69)
Security, maintenance	56.4 (78)	20.5 (293)
Hospitality, food service	75.7 (70)	20.0 (215)
Arts and crafts	72.2 (36)	47.4 (19)
Agriculture	57.1 (35)	42.1 (19)
Newspaper	62.5 (40)	61.9 (21)
Government	72.2 (18)	50.0 (10)
Tutoring	73.8 (130)	34.3 (102)
Social, community	72.7 (44)	46.2 (26)
Technician	81.1 (90)	30.6 (49)
Health professions	72.3 (22)	50.0 (18)
Job Rank		
High	70.2% (679)	36.6% (366)
Medium	74.6 (1231)	37.3 (1133)
Low	73.4 (683)	24.0 (1213)

Apparently, even when they prefer holding a different job, more than 45% of the students are very satisfied with the position they do hold when they are working as media aides (62%), government or health assistants (50%), arts and crafts aides (47%), or in the field of community service (46%). These are all categories, however, which have the highest levels of unmet student demand, as Table 5.5 indicated.

Similarly, the lowest levels of satisfaction obtain for students who hold jobs as security, maintenance or food service aides, or as library or museum assistants, but who prefer to hold a different job. Again--these three categories have the lowest degree of unmet student demand. On the other hand, more than three out of four students who prefer being and are employed as food service and hospitality or library and museum aides are very satisfied with their jobs. Except for technical or health assistants, these are the highest levels of satisfaction among students who prefer the job they hold.

These findings are instructive in that they alert those responsible for student placement to the fact that large numbers of students opt for and are very satisfied with certain kinds of positions which other students shun. However, these positions are least satisfying to the students who hold them when they would prefer to be working at different jobs.

Similarly, there are some kinds of jobs which are maximally satisfying to students, even though these students would prefer to work at a different type of job. Placement officers or aid administrators must be very cognizant of the fact that, if one objective of the CWS program is to maximize students' job satisfaction, they cannot routinely assign students to jobs. Student preference and student choice are key factors in explaining levels of job satisfaction and every attempt should be made to accommodate these individuals.[5]

Although every student cannot be placed in the job of his choice, utmost attention should be given to assigning students to those jobs from which they appear to derive satisfaction--even when they would prefer holding a different job. Similar care should be exercised to avoid placing students in the kinds of jobs from which few derive satisfaction--especially when they have opted for a different job.

Just as it is unrealistic to expect complete congruence between student preference and job placement, it is unrealistic to overlook the fact that students derive--and perceive--benefits from their CWS employment, even though they may not be maximally satisfied with their jobs. The final section of this chapter, therefore, turns to the question of the advantages and disadvantages which students report are associated with their employment.

C. Student Evaluation of CWS Employment

In addition to being asked their perceptions of the attributes of their jobs and their feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction about the jobs, students were also asked to evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of their CWS assignments. Table 5.7 presents the frequency with which specific advantages and disadvantages were selected by students.

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[5] It should be noted, however, as referring back to Table 5.3 reveals, that not all students who report that the selection of the job was entirely their choice, are very satisfied with their CWS employment. It may well be that the range of choice given to students varies and that many students are choosing jobs which represent the lesser of two "evils" rather than jobs which they really would like to hold.

TABLE 5.7

PERCENT OF STUDENTS CITING SPECIFIC JOB ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

Job Advantages		Job Disadvantages	
Learned more about people	69.3%	Little time for athletics or extra-curricular activities	30.9%
Acquired useful skills	66.8	Little time for studying	25.6
Gained more confidence	58.4	Little time for family or friends	19.8
Made friends	57.1	Disillusionment about work	7.5
Felt doing something worthwhile	44.6	Confusion about career	6.0
Became more sure of career choice	26.4		
(n)	(7830)	(n)	(7830)

Advantages are much more frequently cited than disadvantages. If these evaluations have even a modicum of validity, the CWS program is fulfilling its goals admirably. More than two-thirds indicate that their jobs have facilitated the acquisition of useful skills and knowledge about people. Close to three out of five checked that they have gained more confidence and a comparable number have had the opportunity to make new friends.

Job disadvantages are predominantly time-centered--too little time for athletics or extra-curricular activities,studying, or for friends and family. But most noteworthy of all, is the small percentage of students who mention these items.

A glance at Table A,4,3 indicates that certain advantages and disadvantages tend to be job specific. For example, almost everyone employed as a community aide (93%) feels that he has learned more about people. Time pressures also vary by job category, both as a result of the amount of time spent at various kinds of jobs as well as the priorities of students employed in each job category. Students employed as agriculture or horticultural aides, for example, report too little time for athletics or extra-curricular activities; newspaper or technical aides complain of insufficient time to study.

One way of assessing student evaluation of the job is simply to count the number of advantages and disadvantages cited. While this method provides a crude measure of student job evaluation, it offers no insight into the components of a positive or negative evaluation.[4]

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[6] See Appendix Table A.5.4 for correlates of the number of advantages and disadvantages.

For example, two students may both report two job disadvantages: one, however, may cite two "time" items; the other, two items of a more divergent nature, such as career uncertainty and disillusionment with work. The two time factors may be a reflection of academic handicaps or problems, while the last two items may indeed be related to the employment situation.

Accordingly, analysis will focus on types of advantages and disadvantages perceived by different classes of students. In this way, students who specifically mention time pressures can be differentiated from those citing other disadvantages. This approach will facilitate further exploration of the time element.

Job advantages were classified as follows:

Career Related:

(a) Have acquired skills or knowledge which may be useful in the future;

(b) Have become more sure of career choice

Social Orientation:

(a) Have learned more about people;

(b) Have made some close friends

Personal Benefits:

(a) Have felt I was doing something worthwhile for others

(b) Have felt more confident about accepting responsibility

Disadvantages were grouped into two categories:

Time Pressures (too little time for studying, athletics, or family and friends)

Other (disillusionment with the working world or confusion about career)

Table 5.8(a) presents correlates of the types of advantages and disadvantages cited by students. With a few exceptions, there is little difference in the types of advantages and disadvantages perceived by the various classes of students. Girls. apparently more voluble (less discriminating?) than boys, cite each type of advantage and disadvantage most frequently. Graduate students most frequently cite career-related advantages; and for blacks, personal advantages are more frequently checked. On the other hand, white students seem to feel pressured for time.

While more students who have grown up on farms or in rural settings feel the constraints of time limitations than those from the suburbs, they are also more likely to be of the opinion that they have derived all types of benefits from their work experience. Their counterparts from the suburbs (more sophisticated?) see fewer advantages of any type in their jobs--particularly personal advantages; these students are also less likely to feel pressured for time. It comes as no surprise that the chief factor underlying the time limitation nexus is falling behind in school work.

While the advantages and disadvantages of employment are not strongly identified with any of these student characteristics, they do tend to be job specific. However, it should be pointed out that Table 5.8(b) clearly indicates that regardless of the job most students are of the opinion that they have derived social benefits from their CWS employment: they have made friends and learned more about people. This

TABLE 5.8(a)

JOB ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES PERCEIVED BY STUDENTS WITH SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Student Characteristics	(N)	Advantages			Disadvantages	
		Social	Personal	Career	Time	Other
Sex						
Male	(3236)	76.2%	65.4%	64.0%	48.8%	11.3%
Female	(4479)	83.3	72.4	74.9	52.0	13.6
Class Level						
Freshman	(2174)	78.9%	67.1%	64.9%	48.1%	13.9%
Senior	(1491)	81.4	72.2	73.0	50.3	11.8
Graduate Student	(331)	69.8	63.7	77.0	48.0	10.6
Ethnicity						
Black	(1373)	81.1%	74.4%	72.0%	44.7%	13.2%
White	(5579)	79.9	67.8	70.1	51.2	12.3
Residence while in high school						
Farm, ranch	(1229)	84.7%	75.8%	72.7%	55.1%	11.2%
Suburb	(1014)	74.9	60.1	66.0	48.2	12.2
Income						
Under $3000	(922)	82.2%	75.1%	72.6%	51.4%	11.9%
$9000 or more	(1724)	77.6	63.1	68.2	49.5	13.1
High School Standing						
Top 10%	(2227)	80.9%	68.7%	71.7%	53.2%	12.9%
Second quarter or less	(1602)	79.9	69.1	68.5	49.7	13.1

TABLE 5.8(a)--Continued

Selected Student Characteristics	(N)	Advantages			Disadvantages	
		Social	Personal	Career	Time	Other
If No CWS Job:						
Would have made no difference	(355)	67.3%	60.8%	60.8%	36.1%	13.8%
Would have been unable to attend college	(1422)	83.8	74.3	71.6	54.5	13.8
Satisfaction with Job						
Very satisfied	(3738)	80.9%	80.4%	85.8%	46.1%	8.5%
Somewhat satisfied	(2391)	63.4	66.0	77.6	56.8	16.0
Dissatisfied	(863)	40.6	46.0	70.0	60.3	24.3
Ever Fallen Behind in School						
Yes	(2577)	66.9%	71.9%	80.9	69.0%	16.9%
No	(4385)	72.8	72.0	82.4	41.9	10.7
Student Respondents	(7830)	80.2%	70.3%	70.3%	50.1%	13.8%

TABLE 5.8(b)

JOB ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES PERCEIVED BY STUDENTS BY CWS JOB HELD

Job Category	(N)	Advantages			Disadvantages	
		Social	Personal	Career	Time	Personal
Clerical	(2252)	85.3%	71.8%	75.8%	53.6%	12.7%
Library or Museum Assistant	(923)	78.8	66.1	76.9	55.8	13.8
Teaching or Research Assistant	(782)	75.4	71.7	82.4	49.9	10.9
Security and Maintenance Assist.	(435)	70.1	55.4	40.7	51.0	12.4
Hospitality or Food Service Asst.	(326)	87.1	56.7	37.1	46.0	15.0
Athletic or Recreation Asst.	(307)	80.8	71.3	57.0	42.0	13.4
Tutoring or Classroom Assistant	(279)	86.0	86.4	73.5	42.7	10.0
Technician or Data Processing	(169)	71.0	68.0	91.1	56.2	10.7
Social or Community Worker	(93)	93.5	94.6	83.9	48.4	28.0
Newspaper, Radio, Television	(75)	84.0	81.3	93.3	57.3	21.3
Arts and Crafts Assistant	(73)	75.3	69.9	84.9	46.6	12.3
Agriculture or Horticulture Asst.	(70)	75.7	62.9	87.1	65.7	7.1
Health Professions Aide	(46)	84.8	82.6	69.6	63.0	17.4

TABLE 5.8(c)

PERCENT OF STUDENTS PERCEIVING VARIOUS TYPES OF ADVANTAGES
AND DISADVANTAGES FROM THEIR JOBS BY SELECTED JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Job Characteristics	(N)	Advantages			Disadvantages	
		Social	Personal	Career	Time	Other
Job Rank						
High	(1265)	80.2%	77.4%	81.0%	48.6%	12.7%
Medium	(2847)	83.7	71.6	74.9	52.4	12.7
Low	(2281)	77.9	63.3	62.2	53.1	13.5
Placed in Preferred job						
Yes	(2613)	84.9%	78.0%	81.0%	48.4%	9.5%
No	(2744)	77.4	60.3	61.7	57.8	17.4
Job Related to Major						
Yes	(1646)	80.3%	75.1%	80.4%	48.3%	12.7%
No	(3689)	81.5	67.6	67.9	53.2	13.4
Job Related to Career						
Yes	(1190)	82.2%	78.3%	85.6%	50.0%	11.3%
No	(4049)	81.4	67.4	68.4	53.6	13.1
Job Location						
On-campus	(6130)	80.1%	68.7%	70.3%	51.6%	12.6%
Off-campus	(762)	88.8	79.8	78.5	51.8	15.4
Hourly Pay Rate						
Less than $1.60	(874)	80.8%	72.1%	72.4%	50.9%	12.5%
$1,81 or more	(1675)	77.8	67.9	71.6	51.9	14.9

TABLE 5.8(c)--Continued

Selected Job Characteristics	(N)	Advantages			Disadvantages	
		Social	Personal	Career	Time	Other
Job Involves:						
Regular Hours						
Yes	(3526)	84.4%	72.3%	70.1%	52.7%	12.8%
No	(4304)	76.7	66.9	70.4	48.8	12.4
Responsibility						
Yes	(5311)	85.2%	78.5%	76.7%	52.0%	12.5%
No	(2519)	69.6	50.0	56.8	47.5	12.9
Intelligence and Judgment						
Yes	(4122)	86.4%	81.2%	82.7%	52.7%	12.6%
No	(3708)	73.3	56.1	56.4	48.2	12.6
Close Supervision						
Yes	(1523)	85.4%	77.0%	76.1%	55.0%	17.3%
No	(6307)	78.9	67.5	68.9	49.5	11.4
Great Deal of Makework						
Yes	(1269)	78.6%	59.8%	66.3%	56.2%	20.4%
No	(6561)	80.5	71.2	71.1	49.5	11.1
Other Students Doing Same Work						
Yes	(5555)	82.9%	70.9%	70.5%	51.6%	12.8%
No	(1425)	77.8	70.7	77.5	53.3	13.5
Other Workers Have Had:						
More schooling	(778)	86.1%	75.8%	79.4%	54.2%	15.9%
Less schooling	(861)	82.1	64.0	67.0	55.1	16.3
Same schooling	(4499)	82.5	71.6	70.7	51.0	11.7
No one doing same work	(618)	76.2	68.3	75.6	52.1	14.9

seems to be somewhat more true for students working off-campus and for those whose jobs involve regular hours, responsibility, intelligence or close supervision. But the characteristics of the job never differentiate those citing social advantages to the extent that they differentiate the proportions mentioning personal- or career-related advantages. For example, 13% more students who report that their jobs involve intelligence and judgment cite the social advantages of their work than do students who feel that intelligence and judgment are not attributes of their CWS jobs; the corresponding differences between the two groups are 25% for personal advantages and 26% for career-related advantages.

An interesting finding in Table 5.8(c) is that students in jobs where other students are doing similar work are more likely to perceive social, but less likely to perceive career-related advantages, as stemming from their employment. This is congruent with the finding in Chapter Four that career- or major-related jobs are generally those in which no other students, in fact, no other people are doing similar work.

In sum, most students agree (regardless of their own characteristics or those of the job) that they have derived certain social advantages from their CWS employment. Whether their jobs have also bolstered their confidence, fostered a feeling of doing something worthwhile, or enhanced certainty about their careers, however, is related to the characteristics of the job. And again it is the higher rank jobs, and the career- or major-related positions, that contribute to the greater number of students deriving career or personal benefits.

Undoubtedly, as this and the previous chapter have shown, when students are provided with "worthwhile" jobs, they tend to prefer them to other employment, derive satisfaction from them and feel that they are advantageous in various ways. At the very minimum, regardless of the type of job held, four out of five students appear to appreciate that CWS employment has enabled them to make new friends and learn more about people. These too are "skills" which may facilitate adjustment both in college and in their future occupations.

Fully seven out of ten students, furthermore, have, by their own testimony, accrued benefits that relate to their chosen careers. These kinds of benefits, however, are closely tied to the type of job held by the student. The student whose job involves responsibility, intelligence and judgment and who works with employees who have had more education than he (and can perhaps serve as role models) is not only earning the money to help defray the costs of his education, but is also experiencing personal growth.

The Commissioner of Education of the U.S. recently spoke of the need to establish career education as a new priority. He stressed that at the grade school level children should learn about the world of work and the various roles they might play in this world, so that during high school and post-secondary years young people can "learn specific skills to lead them to meaningful employment." [7] If indeed, this is a desirable goal, then the CWS program appears to be an excellent vehicle for its realization.[8]

That there is also a debit side to holding a CWS job must not be overlooked. The majority of the students feel pressured for time. Employment has left too little time for studying, family and friends, or for athletics and extra-curricular activities. Whether this finding is unique to the CWS population remains unknown without a control group which would provide a means for assessing whether the same constraints apply to any group of working students. For the moment, the testimony of the CWS students must stand.

Table 5.8 suggests that the student responses can be accepted at face value, for the one factor which makes the percentage citing time pressures skyrocket (to 69%) is the student's report that he has fallen behind in his coursework. Otherwise, there are only minimal differences in the percentages indicating time pressures.

That time pressures are acknowledged by over two-thirds of the students who have fallen behind in their coursework raises the time-worn question of whether term-time employment is detrimental to academic achievement.[9] The data do not permit an analysis of this question, since there is no unemployed group of (relatively disadvantaged) students with which to compare the CWS students; as a result the analysis is limited to within-group differences.

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[7] Sidney P. Marland. "Career Education--A New Priority," *Science*, 176 (May, 1972).

[8] The editors of the New York Times warned that "the new emphasis given to career education...raised troublesome questions (and) ... may distort the schools' broader and deeper purposes." See *New York Times*, May 22, 1972.

[9] Former Chief of the Work-Study Branch, Warren Troutman assembled evidence which concluded that "part-time employment does not affect

If it is true, however, that working at a job during the school year cuts into the time needed to keep up with academic demands, there may be a relationship between academic achievement and the hours spent on the job each week. Similarly, longer hours may contribute to the feeling of being pressed for time or of falling behind in course work. Table 5.9 presents the relationship of these time factors to four potentially detrimental effects of CWS employment:

1. Grade Point Average
2. Falling behind in course work
3. Having too little time for studying
4. Having too little time either for athletics or extracurricular activities, or for family or friends.

The first three items concern academic pressures; the last social deprivation. It is a little surprising to discover (Table 5.9) that time devoted to the job has little bearing on the level of achievement for the CWS students, and falling behind in academic work is hardly more characteristic of the student working a full schedule than for the one working a limited number of hours. But 15 hours a week on the job does contribute to the student's feeling that he has too little time for studying

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adversely the average student's grades in college" and that, in fact, "students with jobs may sometimes achieve better grades than those without jobs." See memorandum to all Directors of Student Financial Aid from Warren T. Troutman, Chief of Work-Study Branch, Division of Student Financial Aid, December 21, 1970.

TABLE 5,9

SELECTED RESPONSES OF CWS STUDENTS BY TIME INVOLVED ON THE JOB

Time Involved On the Job	Mean GPA		Fallen Behind in Studies		Too Little Time For		
					Studying	Athletic or Social Activities	(N)
Number of Hours							
Under 10	2.69	(972)	32.9%	(1034)	19.3%	29.4%	(1059)
10 - 14	2.66	(1698)	37.2	(1810)	26.0	42.1	(1843)
15	2.60	(2079)	37.5	(2217)	27.4	41.8	(2261)
Number of Days							
1 - 3	2.71	(1175)	39.6%	(1269)	24.0	38.0%	(1294)
4	2.63	(870)	37.8	(918)	27.5	43.4	(982)
5 or more	2.62	(3018)	33.7	(3197)	25.3	40.5	(3277)

or for social activities.

In particular, the hours a week devoted to a CWS job appears to cut into the time remaining for social activities. The high incidence of students who feel that they have insufficient time to engage in extracurricular activities or to spend with family and frineds should not be minimized. These activities are important sources of relaxation, fun, encouragement, morale, and rewards.

The results are somewhat modified if the time factor is measured in days in preferance to hours. The days required to fulfill the hours committed to a CWS job bear little or no relationship to either GPA or time pressures. Surprisingly enough, this measure is inversely related to reports of falling behind in coursework. Students who work only one to three days a week are a little more likely to report that they have fallen behind than their classmates who put in a full week.

In sum, the data in Table 5.9 do not corroborate a detrimental effect of CWS employment on college grades. Though students complain about too little time for their studies, for extra-curricular and athletic activities, or for family and friends, their testimony as to the personal, career, and social benefits derived from CWS employment suggests that the program's positive aspects outweigh the negative ones. This is especially true when the student is given the choice in job placement, when his employment bears some relationship to his academic or occupational interests, and when he perceives his job as one which calls for the exercise of responsibility, intelligence and judgment.

CHAPTER SIX

THE WORK-STUDY INSTITUTION

Abstract

Chapter Six returns to the institutional setting. It begins with an examination of the relationship between institutional characteristics and extent of involvement in the tripartite federal financial aid programs. It then turns to a description of the CWS funding history reported by the financial aid officers from various settings. The chapter concludes by comparing institutions with an off-campus program to those which offer only on-campus employment.

CHAPTER SIX

THE WORK-STUDY INSTITUTION

College Work-Study Program guidelines maximize the freedom of participating institutions to devise local variants within the national program. Emphases and goals of administrators differ; student bodies are widely divergent; the pool of potential on- or off-campus employers varies substantially across institutional, state, and regional lines. Further, while federal funds are reaching students in the form of wages for employment, relationships are being forged among the institution's administrative staff, as well as between the institution and its employing agencies. Similarly, among the eligible students or employers, some have been selected in preference to others, and some institutions are finding it difficult to implement the program with the limited federal monies provided them, while others encounter trouble utilizing their allocations. Institutions, in other words, differ widely in their administration of the College Work-Study program.

This chapter addresses itself to three questions: (1) the differential participation of CWS institutions in the other major federal aid programs; (2) the reported funding history of institutions and their correlates; (3) the institutional off-campus employment commitments and their correlates.

A. Differential Participation in Federal Aid Programs

Any discussion of the funding history of an institution must take into account the fact that some institutions do not participate in all three federal aid programs.[1] Table 6.1 shows that two-year schools or those which are predominantly white are least likely to participate in all three programs. Partial participation is a function of several factors, the most obvious being eligibility: proprietary schools, for example, are ineligible to participate in the EOG program.[2]

The observed pattern of differential participation in the three federal aid programs is best explained, however, by the fact that institutional costs and student need vary from one type of institution to another. Universities, both public and private, are high-cost institutions and almost every one of these schools participates in all three programs. The public four-year schools which support--and attract--a high proportion of low-income students, also rely on all three programs as sources of aid. In contrast, private four-year colleges enroll many students from moderate to high-income families. In the face of rising costs such institutions must offer some form of financial aid for these higher income students but they have little left for recruiting and supporting students eligible for EOG's.[3]

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[1] Note, however, that four out of five institutions participate in all three programs.

[2] Under the new Higher Education Act(1972) proprietary schools are eligible to participate in the Basic Opportunity Grants Program.

[3] See Chapter Six of Friedman and Thompson, *op. cit.* for a discussion of the "hidden costs" of participating in the EOG program.

TABLE 6.1

PARTICIPATION IN FEDERAL AID PROGRAMS BY SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Institutional Characteristics	(n)	All Three	CWS+ NDSL	CWS+ EOG	CWS Only
All Schools	(2006)	81.4%	3.1%	9.4%	6.1%
Type/Control					
Private University	(81)	96.3%	2.5%	-	1.2%
Public University	(146)	97.3	2.1	-	.7
Private Four-Year	(643)	92.4	3.3	2.5	1.9
Public Four-year	(237)	99.2	.4	.4	-
Private Two-Year	(174)	64.4	11.5	12.1	12.1
Public Two-Year	(610)	62.0	2.0	23.0	13.1
Racial Composition					
Predominantly White	(1802)	80.7%	3.1%	9.8%	6.3%
Predominantly Black	(89)	94.4	3.4	1.1	1.1
Federal Region					
I	(138)	79.7%	.7	10.1	9.4
II	(180)	83.9	5.0	8.9	2.2
III	(234)	85.0	3.0	6.4	5.6
IV	(394)	81.0	3.8	8.1	7.1
V	(327)	81.3	2.8	9.5	6.4
VI	(170)	78.8	3.5	8.8	8.8
VII	(117)	82.1	2.6	8.5	6.8
VIII	(81)	87.7	3.7	4.9	3.7
IX	(174)	77.0	2.9	14.9	5.2
X	(76)	77.6	1.3	19.7	1.3

The two-year colleges, whether public or private, have the highest proportion of CWS students from families with income less than $3000, but their costs are relatively low. As a consequence, less than two-thirds of the two-year colleges participate in all three federal aid programs. In the private sector, participation in CWS is most frequently combined with participation in the NDSL program; in the public sector, the EOG program serves as the supplement for CWS.

Differential participation in the three programs has certain measurable consequences, as Table 6.2 indicates. Institutions which participate in all three programs are less likely to report that their CWS allocation has always been adequate. Similarly, compared with the partial participants, those institutions in all three programs more frequently state that their 1970-71 allocation was substantially less than requested. Since participation in all three programs signals the institutional need for student support, it is hardly surprising that allocations are inadequate in the institutions participating in all three programs. Nor is it strange that less than half (47%) of the eligible students at these schools are, on the average, offered CWS employment. In contrast, institutions administering only a CWS program can offer employment to more than two-thirds (67%) of the students eligible for these jobs.

With so few schools reporting an adequate CWS allocation, the next section turns to an analysis of the funding history of these institutions as reported by the CWS coordinators.

TABLE 6.2

SELECTED RESPONSES OF AID ADMINISTRATORS BY INSTITUTIONAL PARTICIPATION IN FEDERAL AID PROGRAMS

Selected Responses	All Three	CWS+ NDSL	CWS+ EOG	CWS Only
CWS allocation always adequate	22,5% (1539)	44.1% (59)	29.2% (178)	40.9% (115)
Federal allocation substantially less than requested	48,8% (1441)	40.4% (57)	39.5% (162)	33.0% (106)
Mean CWS allocation	$53,568 (1513)	$17,671 (59)	$18,835 (178)	$11,094 (114)
Mean percent receiving financial aid	43.1% (1519)	52.2% (59)	30.8% (171)	36.0% (110)
Mean percent aided through state	29.8% (1067)	23.3% (32)	30.5% (127)	34.2% (64)
Mean percent aided through institution	46.4% (1300)	44.2% (38)	30.8% (142)	29.9% (57)
Mean percent eligible who are offered employment	47.3% (1507)	41.3% (55)	65.7% (173)	67.3% (114)

B. Adequacy of Funding

Six out of ten of the responding institutions report that their 1970-71 CWS allocations were not sufficient to provide employment for all eligible students. Several factors--Regional Panel recommendations, Congressional appropriations, state allocation formulae--affect the level of Work-Study funds which reach the institution. Each of these factors could contribute to the reduction of the expected allocation for the operation of the program. To trace the impact of these factors over time, the period from FY 1967 through FY 1971 will be used to classify the institutions according to the number of years they have not received adequate funds. This indicator smooths out year to year fluctuations in funding, and allows identification of chronically underfunded institutions. At the same time, it introduces perceptions of adequacy in place of more objective measures.[4] Employing this measure, it is seen that 16% of all sampled institutions report four to five years of allocations not meeting the need for CWS employment of all eligible students. A determination of the characteristics of such institutions is important for future programming if there is any interest in breaking the cycle of constrained operation.

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[4] It may occur to the reader that institutions which have more recently come to participate in Work-Study have less chance to report several years of inadequate funding, so that apparently adequately funded institutions may be confounded with recency of participation. It should be noted that 61% of all sampled institutions have participated in CWS for five or more years and have a funding history for the entire period examined here. Second, all relationships reported in this chapter have been found to hold when examined separately for institutions which have been participating in the program for different lengths of time.

Table 6.3 details the general characteristics of institutions which have experienced insufficient allocations. Differentiating by the type and control of the institution, it is clear that among universities, only one in five or six reports it has always been fully funded. At the four-year level, private colleges are less likely than public ones to report chronic under-funding. Among two-year institutions there is the least difference between the public and private sectors; approximately three out of ten of these institutions report never having received an insufficient allocation.

To a large extent, the regional differences in reports of funding adequacy reflect differences in the state allocation formulae. For example, as Appendix Table A.6.1(a) indicates, almost all schools in Regions II, IX, and X are in states in which panel recommendations were cut to less than 75% of their original levels. On the other hand, no institutions in Regions IV and V, and only 4.5% of those in Region III are located in states where allocations were less than 75% of panel recommendations.

Sharp differences in adequacy of funding appear between predominantly white and predominantly black institutions. More than twice as many black colleges (proportionately) report four or five years of insufficient funds as do predominantly white schools (34% to 16%). Only 20% of the black schools, but 27% of the white ones report that funding has always been adequate. These differences, accentuate the greater needs of the black institutions with their very large numbers of low-income students. Finally, the small program schools appear to have

TABLE 6.3

YEARS OF INSUFFICIENT FUNDING, FY'67 - FY'71 BY SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Institutional Characteristics	(n)	Years of Insufficient Funding			
		None	One	Two or Three	Four or Five
All Institutions	(2006)	26.6%	27.9%	29.2%	16.3%
Type/Control					
Private University	(81)	22.5	28.8	28.8	20.0
Public University	(146)	16.8	34.3	32.2	16.8
Private Four-Year	(643)	24.3	27.3	30.4	18.0
Public Four-Year	(237)	19.7	21.7	33.6	25.0
Private Two-Year	(174)	35.7	27.5	25.1	11.6
Public Two-Year	(610)	31.3	29.3	27.0	12.4
Federal Region					
I	(138)	18.8%	23.9%	34.1%	23.2%
II	(180)	18.3	23.6	38.2	19.9
III	(234)	34.9	30.3	24.1	10.8
IV	(394)	33.8	31.0	21.2	14.1
V	(327)	32.2	31.0	25.8	11.0
VI	(170)	28.2	23.0	32.8	16.1
VII	(117)	18.9	31.1	31.1	18.8
VIII	(81)	15.5	31.0	29.8	23.8
IX	(174)	18.0	25.3	36.5	20.2
X	(76)	14.5	15.8	42.1	27.6
Racial Composition					
Predominantly White	(1860)	26.9%	28.1%	29.4%	15.5%
Predominantly Black	(86)	19.8	22.1	24.4	33.7
CWS Program Size					
Small	(1246)	30.0%	29.0%	28.4%	12.6%
Medium	(460)	22.8	26.3	28.3	22.6
Large	(240)	16.2	25.0	35.0	23.8

been funded consistently at a fuller level than institutions maintaining large programs.

These variations reflect much more than merely perceptual differences among aid administrators as to what constitutes "sufficiency" of funding. They emphasize differences from one type of school to another in the composition of the student body or cost of the institution. Institutions with the highest proportions of students from low-income families or those with costs which send student "needs" spiraling are the ones which report chronic underfunding.[5]

The consequences for the institution of chronic underfunding are reported in Table 6.4. As might be expected, the institution with a history of insufficient funding is more disposed to appeal the recommendation made by the Regional Panel. Perhaps the experience of inadequate funds in previous years makes the aid administrator take a more "militant" position in a later year. At any rate, an increase in appeals is observed between institutions experiencing one or no years and those reporting two or more years of inadequate funds.

Many factors may affect an institution's propensity to appeal the panel recommendation. Among these are the size of its program, the degree of commitment to the level of expenditures for which it has

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[5] See Chapter Four of Friedman and Thompson, *op. cit.* for evidence of differences among institutions of varying type and control in the extent to which recruitment activities, admissions policies, and remedial programs are geared to attract increasing proportions of low income/minority students.

TABLE 6.4

SELECTED RESPONSES OF FINANCIAL AID OFFICER
BY YEARS OF INSUFFICIENT FUNDING

Selected Responses of Financial Aid Officer	Year of Insufficient Funding			
	None	One	Two or Three	Four or Five
Appeal 1970 Regional Panel?				
Appealed	6.5%	16.2%	27.7%	26.3%
No adjustment	1.2	8.0	13.8	10.9
Adjustment	5.3 (508)	8.2 (527)	13.9 (559)	15.4 (311)
Received a supplemental allocation	41.2% (510)	55.4% (532)	74.7% (566)	83.0% (311)
50% or more of the student body financially aided	34.8% (508)	38.0% (532)	39.8% (555)	46.1% (317)
70% or more of those eligible were offered Work-Study	44.4% (507)	36.6% (530)	30.8% (556)	27.2% (312)
Kinds of students usually given preference for CWS employment				
Entering freshmen	19.8% (409)	16.6% (441)	13.2% (494)	11.0% (273)
Upperclassmen or graduate students	34.7% (395)	35.5% (428)	37.0% (479)	34.4% (262)
Students with better academic performance	16.6% (403)	14.9% (437)	13.4% (484)	13.6% (272)
Those not eligible for other financial aid	30.8% (412)	23.7% (451)	20.9% (488)	18.9% (270)
Students able to be matched with other financial aid	30.4% (408)	31.8% (440)	29.5% (495)	25.9% (270)
Students who apply first	48.5% (441)	52.0% (463)	46.8% (509)	47.5% (282)
In-state or local residents	17.0% (388)	17.3% (421)	13.2% (471)	16.8% (262)
Minority-group students	51.2% (414)	48.7% (460)	44.6% (496)	44.4% (275)
Students with special job skills	27.2% (426)	25.9% (456)	25.2% (515)	24.3% (280)

made a funding request, as well as its administrator's general forcefulness and experience in the funding process.[6]

It should be noted that the chronically underfunded institution, if it does appeal, is more likely to receive an upward adjustment. Perhaps the aid officer who has been receiving inadequate allocations over a period of years has developed skills in the bargaining arena and can present a better documented case than his counterpart who is appealing for the first time.

While supplemental funding is determined by an automatic process, it is interesting that more than four out of five chronically underfunded institutions received a supplemental allocation in 1970. Less than half (41%) of those reporting no years of inadequate funding received a supplemental allocation that year.

Even though four out of five chronically underfunded institutions have received supplemental allocations, they still encounter problems in meeting their commitments. For example, Table 6.4 indicates that almost half of these schools (46%) report that 50% or more of their student body receive some form of financial aid. This compares with only 35% at the adequately funded institutions. More significantly, however, only one out of four (27%) of the chronically underfunded institutions was able to offer CWS employment to at least 70% of those who were eligible.

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[6] Although the data are not presented here, it was found that aid officers who report multiple professional activities are more likely to appeal the panel recommendation than are their cohorts who report few or no professional activities.

Clearly, although institutions with a history of insufficient allocations are providing financial assistance to large proportions of students, these schools are in a position to help even more students. If these reports are reliable, they suggest an inequity in the funding process. The very institutions which are enrolling large proportions of students requiring financial assistance are not receiving sufficient funds to provide term-time employment for eligible students. The schools which are adequately funded, on the whole, have fewer students in need of aid and can provide CWS employment for a larger proportion of them.

These findings suggest that the percent of eligible students who are offered CWS employment is a crucial parameter for assessing the overall distribution of CWS funds. Of course, specific criteria of eligibility will vary across institutional and regional lines (depending on costs and needs) but with national guidelines for assessing individual eligibility, such an indicator holds promise of maximizing equity in the channeling of funds to students.

If chronically underfunded institutions are unable to provide employment for most eligible students, there is an inherent risk that preferential treatment will have to be afforded to some. Table 6.4 suggests that institutions distinguished by their funding history show differences in the types of students given preference for CWS employment. Compared with the others, more adequately funded institutions tend to give preference to entering freshmen, to minority group students, to students not eligible for other kinds of financial aid, and to students who are able to be matched with other forms of financial aid.

A managerial philosophy at almost half of these schools appears to be "first come, first serve:" whether or not they have reported inadequate funding, preference is given to students who apply first in almost one out of two institutions. This is a somewhat disturbing finding since it is likely that students from especially low-income or minority backgrounds will be underrepresented in the pool of early applicants. They tend to make later decisions to attend college, and they find out relatively late about financial aid.[7] In any event, it is well to bear in mind that the success of a program targeted to provide aid for needy students is dependent upon the funds appropriated by the Congress and the means utilized to channel them through the institutions to the students. In addition, students from low-income/families must be made aware of the availability of financial aid for college during their early high school years and, while seniors, they should be given assistance in processing their applications for both admission and aid.[8]

Table 6.5 presents data on the relationship between adequacy of funding and selected administrative problems and procedures. The first two items in this table deal with the rather sensitive question of the

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[7] See Chapter Two.

[8] Even though the federal government funds the Talent Search and Upward Bound programs, very few students in the country participate. As a consequence the dissemination of aid information through these programs is limited. Only 4% of the student respondents participated in either of these programs (Chapter Two).

TABLE 6.5

PERCENT REPORTING SELECTED WORK-STUDY ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES BY INSTITUTIONAL FUNDING HISTORY

Selected Work-Study Administrative Practices	Years of Insufficient Funding			
	None	One	Two or Three	Four or Five
Forced to use CWS in place of regular employment[a]	42.7% (503)	42.2% (529)	46.1% (562)	53.4% (311)
See CWS as means of maintaining normal operations	61.8% (497)	62.0% (519)	61.0% (552)	62.5% (315)
Viewed as "Major Problem":				
Estimating funds needed for CWS	20.4% (506)	23.9% (535)	22.5% (556)	14.0% (314)
Uncertain about funds for second half of year[b]	42.9% (510)	70.4% (527)	73.5% (563)	76.8% (314)
Covering administrative expenses with 3% allowance	20.9% (492)	28.9% (522)	28.5% (551)	28.5% (309)
Have a summer CWS program	81.9% (518)	86.2% (542)	87.0% (568)	88.7% (318)
Have an off-campus program	62.7% (518)	69.7% (542)	66.4% (568)	71.4% (318)
Communications:				
Frequently speak with DHEW/OE	49.9% (511)	58.6% (539)	62.9% (558)	69.0% (316)
Frequently speak with administrators in state	71.1% (506)	73.7% (536)	75.0% (552)	79.8% (312)
Frequently speak with administrators in region	36.1% (499)	41.4% (524)	41.1% (545)	50.2% (311)
Frequently speak with administrators outside of region	43.5% (487)	45.0% (507)	39.0% (526)	32.0% (300)

[a] Frequently or occasionally.

[b] The CWS program has since become one full year forward-funded.

use of the CWS program as means of satisfying institutional personnel needs. The CWS manual stipulates that CWS employment must not replace jobs held by regular employees of the institution. Administrators were asked, however, whether they were ever forced to use Work-Study students "in jobs which normally would be filled by regular employees?" Only 6% report that this is "frequently" the case; however, it is significant that just slightly more than half (55%) report that they "never" use students in that capacity. Funding history is related to these responses: 58% of the institutions with a history of adequate funding report that they "never" use students in the place of regular employees, but less than half (47%) of those institutions experiencing four or five years of inadequate funding report never using students to take the place of regular employees.

It also appears from Table 6.5 that institutions with a history of inadequate funding are better able to "cope" with administration of the CWS program in such areas as estimating funds needed during the year but are more likely to be uncertain about the availability of funds for the second half of the year. This uncertainty reflects hopes that unutilized CWS funds from other institutions will be channeled to them. Such uncertainty which is produced by the nature of the funding process, rather than by contingencies within the institution, may have consequences over and above the equanimity of the financial aid officer. For the latter's uncertainty may proliferate throughout his network of contacts with other Work-Study Coordinators, with both on- and off-campus employers, and with CWS students.

The data in Table 6.5 manifest the pattern noted earlier, namely that institutions with more adequate funding seem to be somewhat less committed to student aid programs, for compared with the chronically underfunded schools, these institutions are less likely to maintain Work-Study summer or off-campus employment programs. It is also apparent from these reports that administrators in programs that are adequately funded are less likely to be in communication with Office of Education officials or with aid administrators at other institutions.

Finally, in reporting their global satisfaction with Work-Study, the somewhat paradoxical finding is that those administrators who have been chronically underfunded report greater satisfaction with Work-Study. Clearly these data bolster the suggestion made earlier that among the factors predisposing administrators to report insufficient allocations over past years is aggressive and sophisticated involvement in the program. This evidence also supports a recommendation that satisfied but passive participants in Work-Study be encouraged to make greater claims on the program. To the degree that administrators participate in Work-Study with unequal energy, skill, and knowledge, students at their respective institutions will experience unequal chances to benefit from federal outlays.[9]

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[9] Findings from the case studies suggest that small colleges with overburdened and relatively inexperienced aid personnel, exhibit an overly restrained approach towards requesting funds and taking advantage of developing opportunities for a larger share in Work-Study.

C. Off-Campus Programs: Limiting Factors and Scope

Program officials at the national level have consistently, in directives, memoranda, and speeches, urged the expansion of institutional off-campus CWS employment opportunities. The Division of Student Financial Aid has taken the position that such jobs as school, community, judicial, or recreation aides not only provide greater rewards for the student but also permit expansion of non-profit community agency services. Chapters Four and Seven present data which suggest that off-campus jobs are indeed more desirable from the student's point of view and that employers perceive benefits to the students, institutions, and their agencies as well. Still, about one-third of all institutional respondents report that they have no off-campus CWS program. This section examines the factors which limit such programming, as well as some of the consequences of these limitations.

Table 6.6 indicates that it is the two-year institution or the private four-year college which is most likely to report no CWS off-campus employment programs. Four out of ten have failed to move beyond the boundaries of the campus. A similar proportion of four-year private colleges have no off-campus program (38%). The proportion drops to one in seven for the public four-year schools and shrinks to just one in ten at the university level.

It is apparently not the case that off-campus programs are curtailed because of any principled objections to this type of involvement. From a check-list of six factors limiting an off-campus program, the fewest number of respondents (3%) agreed that "Work-Study

TABLE 6.6

PERCENT OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING NO OFF-CAMPUS EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM AND FACTORS LIMITING INVOLVEMENT BY INSTITUTIONAL TYPE AND CONTROL

Factors Limiting Off-campus Employment Program	All Schools	Private University	Public University	Private Four-Year	Public Four-Year	Private Two-Year	Public Two-Year
Percent with no off-campus employment program	32.8%	7.8%	11.2%	37.5%	16.1%	40.0%	38.6%
Too little staff	36.6	13.7	31.2	35.6	33.9	34.1	42.6
Work-Study should not be a labor pool for non-profit agencies	3.0	2.0	1.6	3.2	2.2	3.4	3.5
Enough employment opportunities on-campus	37.4	35.3	43.2	39.5	30.3	31.2	39.1
Not prepared for kinds of problems which would arise	9.8	5.9	6.4	11.3	6.6	10.7	10.3
Geographic location	21.8	21.6	20.8	25.8	20.8	24.4	17.3
Students don't like to work off-campus	11.9	29.4	15.2	12.3	13.5	6.8	10.3
(n)	(2006)	(51)	(125)	(698)	(274)	(205)	(653)

should not serve as a labor pool for non-profit agencies." The two most frequent reasons for limiting off-campus employment are "sufficient employment opportunities on-campus" and "too little staff to administer the program": almost four out of ten aid officers checked these reasons.

The relatively high percent of aid administrators claiming sufficient employment opportunities on-campus merits further notice. If this is indeed the case, the desire at the federal level to see an expansion of off-campus employment might be unrealistic. For certainly, it is easier to administer an on-campus CWS program--fewer staff, less funds, less time and attention are required.[10]

Some of the reluctance to institute or expand an off-campus program may stem from the fact that some administrators are using the CWS program as a means of curtailing expenses. Table 6.7 presents data which indicate that administrators who claim that inadequate staff or sufficient on-campus opportunities limit an off-campus program are more likely to see CWS as a means of maintaining normal operations. These aid officers also more frequently admit that they use CWS students in positions which would normally be held by regular employees. Among those who cite "too little staff" as a limiting factor, 63.4% see CWS as a means of maintaining normal operations and 48.5%

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[10] Furthermore, although noted as a limiting factor by only 12% of the administrators, conversations with students during the site visits suggest that many prefer working on-campus and among student respondents, three out of four (78%) report that they prefer on-campus employment.

frequently or occasionally use CWS students to do work which would normally be done by regular employees. The corresponding percentages are lower (60.6% and 43.1%) for those who do not cite "too little staff" as a limiting factor.[11] While the differences are small, they are consistent, and they suggest that those who are using the program to curtail expenses are not likely to make energetic efforts to set up or expand off-campus operations.

TABLE 6.7

PERCENT OF WORK-STUDY COORDINATORS WHO SEE CWS AS A MEANS OF MAINTAINING NORMAL OPERATIONS AND WHO FREQUENTLY OR OCCASIONALLY USE CWS STUDENTS INSTEAD OF REGULAR EMPLOYEES BY LIMITING FACTORS CITED

Items	Too Little Staff		Sufficient Opportunities On-Campus	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
See CWS as a way of maintaining normal operations	62.4% (720)	60.6% (1201)	64.2% (737)	61.7% (1218)
Frequently or occasionally use CWS students instead of regular employees	48.5% (720)	43.2% (1233)	49.7% (742)	42.3% (1217)

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[11] This is not to say that "too little staff" is not an actual fact. For among the 1243 institutions with one administrator in the financial aid office, 39% cite this as a limiting factor, while only 26% of the 127 institutions employing four or more at the administrative level have checked this option.

One key to an understanding of the limitations cited by different types of schools lies in an analysis of whether these limitations are more frequently mentioned by administrators of institutions with or without off-campus employment programs. Table 6.8 presents data relating to this question. It appears that certain limitations tend to serve as rationales for no off-campus program, while other factors are as likely to be mentioned by institutions with or without off-campus programs.

Schools with no off-campus programs are four times more likely than the others to state that they are not prepared to handle the kinds of problems which arise when students are employed off-campus. Although few in number, they are also more likely to be of the opinion that Work-Study should not serve as a labor pool for non-profit agencies. In other words, it is possible that schools with no off-campus employment programs may well be handicapped by insufficient staff or geographic location; however, the data suggest that such institutions may also be less willing to initiate off-campus programs because they are opposed to them in principle, or because they have reservations about their ability to cope with problems which might arise.[12]

So far, it appears that despite chronic underfunding, a high percentage of these institutions are still able to maintain off-campus

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[12] During the site visits, administrators described some of the unanticipated problems which had arisen when students were employed in off-campus agencies. (See Section C, Chapter One)

TABLE 6.8

PERCENT CITING SELECTED LIMITATIONS OF MAINTAINING AN OFF-CAMPUS EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM BY WHETHER SUCH A PROGRAM EXISTS

Factors Limiting Off-Campus Employment Program	Does Institution Have an Off-Campus Program		Ratio
	Yes	No	
	(1348)	(658)	
Too little staff	28.9%	52.6%	1.8
Do not think Work-Study should be a labor pool	2.0	5.2	2.6
Enough employment opportunities on-campus	29.3	54.0	1.8
Not prepared for kinds of problems which would arise	4.7	20.2	4.3
Geographic location	18.9	27.7	1.5
Students don't like to work off-campus	13.3	9.0	.7

or summer employment programs. The data in Table 6.9 suggest that in general, maintaining an off-campus program, engaging in extensive efforts to administer this program, and minimizing limiting factors, go hand in hand with chronic underfunding, high frequency of appeals at the federal level, and substantially less than requested allocations. Similarly, fewer of the institutions which maintain and vigorously administer an off-campus program are able to offer CWS employment to at least 70% of those eligible.

TABLE 6.9

SELECTED ADMINISTRATIVE ITEMS BY SCOPE OF OFF-CAMPUS EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM AND NUMBER OF LIMITING FACTORS CITED

Selected Administrative Items	Off-Campus Program		Techniques Used In Administration of Off-Campus Program			Factors Limiting Off-Campus Involvement	
	Yes	No	0-1	2	3 or more	0-1	2 or more
50% or more receiving financial aid	38.8% (1326)	38.6% (645)	37.0% (451)	37.6% (399)	41.4% (476)	39.9% (1069)	37.3% (902)
70% or more of eligibles offered CWS	33.9% (1314)	38.6% (643)	33.7% (445)	35.9% (398)	32.3% (471)	36.1% (1060)	31.7% (897)
Allocation always adequate	24.1% (1348)	29.3% (658)	27.4% (441)	28.4% (395)	19.5% (471)	27.7% (1050)	25.3% (896)
Federal allocation substantially less than requested	48.5% (1243)	40.8% (617)	46.5% (419)	45.0% (376)	52.5% (448)	44.3% (1005)	48.0% (855)
Appealed Regional Recommendation	21.6% (1320)	12.8% (650)	17.6% (445)	17.4% (396)	27.9% (473)	18.9% (1062)	18.4% (908)
See CWS as means of maintaining normal operation	61.8% (1297)	62.2% (641)	67.9% (442)	58.6% (391)	58.8% (464)	62.8% (1037)	61.0% (901)
Forced to use CWS students instead of regular employees	44.7% (1312)	45.9% (647)	45.8% (452)	44.1% (392)	44.2% (468)	42.0% (1051)	48.8% (908)
Arrange summer employment near student's home	55.2% (1202)	12.5% (432)	52.8% (398)	53.3% (364)	59.1% (440)	66.7% (881)	53.9% (753)

TABLE 6,9--Continued

Selected Administrative Items	Off-Campus Program		Techniques Used in Administration of Off-Campus Program			Factors Limiting Off-Campus Involvement	
	Yes	No	0-1	2	3 or more	0-1	2 or more
Find the following to be "major" problems:							
Estimating needed funds	19.0% (1348)	24,9% (658)	22,1% (453)	20.8% (400)	15,5% (470)	19.2% (1067)	23.8% (902)
Uncertainty about funds for second half	66,0% (1348)	59.4% (658)	65.8% (447)	66.7% (402)	68,8% (477)	64.0% (1064)	66.1% (908)
Finding eligible students	5,2% (1348)	13.2% (658)	7,0% (445)	5,9% (392)	3.4% (474)	5.5% (1056)	11.0% (901)
Covering administrative expenses (with 3%)	27,9% (1348)	20.8% (658)	24.4% (438)	26.7% (393)	35.1% (467)	24.6% (1043)	28.9% (886)
Feel CWS has improved image of institution in community	52,4% (1348)	19.0% (658)	68,6% (453)	73.2% (403)	79.7% (478)	48.1% (1088)	33.7% (918)
Feel CWS has increased faculty research	26.0% (1348)	15.7% (658)	19.3% (461)	22,6% (407)	35.2% (480)	22.5% (1088)	22.7% (918)
CWS program "very successful"	74.0% (1334)	61.2% (650)	68.6% (453)	73.2% (403)	79.7% (478)	74.1% (1074)	64.7% (910)

On the other hand, these active institutions--although underfunded--are no more likely to see CWS as a means of maintaining normal operations. Nor do they more frequently utilize CWS students in place of regular employees. Further, they cite various problems at no greater, and sometimes at a lesser, rate as their institutional counterparts with no off-campus program or with a larger number of limiting factors.

In addition, they increase the financial resources of their eligible students by arranging for summer employment near student's home. Furthermore, according to institutional respondents, involvement in off-campus programming does not reduce the impact which CWS has had on encouraging faculty research. And finally, despite the struggle to maintain and extend commitments in the face of scarce resources, they perceive the CWS program at their institution as "very successful" and feel that a side benefit of the program has been the improvement of the institution's image in the surrounding community.[13]

Such an ideal outcome is not universal, however. Some institutions expressed their inability to meet and maintain commitments by closing down their off-campus operation. While only 29 instances are documented in Appendix Table A.6.2, the characteristics of these institutions tend to set them apart. Compared with other institutions, these schools:

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[13] Although the data are not presented here, off-campus involvement is also associated with greater frequency of communication of the aid officer with other administrators at the institution, with administrators at other schools, and with Office of Education personnel. In addition, the institutions with an off-campus program are most likely to have plans for expanding their CWS programs should additional funds become available.

(1) Enroll substantially higher proportions of students requiring financial aid;

(2) Have been chronically underfunded;

(3) Were more likely to receive a federal allocation substantially less than requested;

(4) Tend to be located in states which were funded below the 75% level;

(5) Offered CWS employment to a smaller portion of those eligible;

(6) See CWS as a means of maintaining normal operations. This viewpoint alone could serve as a stimulus for ceasing off-campus operations and concentrating on institutional needs.

These 29 "casualties" should not be lightly dismissed. The data suggest that insufficient allocations are associated with high proportions of students receiving aid while at the same time aid officers must curtail the use of CWS earnings as a means of support. That some of these schools are beginning to cut operations implies a diminished range of opportunity for the student and a portent of future actions that may by taken by other schools confronted with similar frustrations.

Officials at the regional and federal levels have been emphasizing the importance of CWS as a vehicle for promoting off-campus community service involvement, but wholly adequate funds for implementing the program have never been appropriated by the Congress. Both student and employer data[14] suggest that off-campus jobs provide more positive benefits for students and that they improve the image of the institution in the community.

Accordingly, it would seem to make sense to reward (in the allocation process) those institutions which are actively implementing off-campus programs to assure that such schools do not fall on the battlefield. At the same time, the incentive to develop an off-campus program may be stimulated if higher employer contributions are sanctioned by the Division of Student Financial Aid. Many of the strains would tend to relax with a slight modification of the proportional contributions, particularly if the institutions were allowed to reserve a fraction of the employer collections for administering the program.

Off-campus programs have already been developed at large institutions with adequate administrative and clerical personnel to permit division of labor and specialization. It is unrealistic to expect the Work-Study Coordinator in a small institution, who often administers all three federal aid programs--frequently in a one-man office--to pay more than token recognition to the directives calling for off-campus employment programs unless he is assisted in this task by those who have successfully established and administered such programs themselves. Some provision for consultation should, therefore, be made to share the fund of knowledge accumulated from experience. Perhaps a Financial Aid Advisory Commission under the auspices of the National Association of Financial Aid Officers would be feasible.[15] In this way the program goal of an increased ratio of off- to on-campus jobs might be more effectively implemented.

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[14] See Chapters Four, Five, and Seven.

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[15] See Friedman and Thompson, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE CWS EMPLOYER

Abstract

After describing the general characteristics of CWS employers and the agencies with which they are affiliated, Chapter Seven concentrates on two issues: the attributes of employment settings in which CWS participation is perceived as having the greatest impact first on the students and then on the agencies themselves. The next section explores an unanticipated outcome of the CWS program; namely, the possibility of expanding employment opportunities for students placed in the various agencies.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE CWS EMPLOYER

A. Characteristics of the CWS Employer

In earlier chapters the features of the College Work-Study Program reported by CWS Coordinators and students have been discussed. This chapter describes Work-Study from the vantage point of the employer who serves as the program link between the CWS Coordinator and the working student. Table 7.1 presents data describing the employers and the settings in which students work. The data are presented separately for on- and off-campus employers not only to point out differences but also to reduce the bias introduced by originally oversampling off-campus employers.[1]

It appears that most CWS students--whether they work on- or off-campus--are supervised by males, for only one out of four employer respondents is a woman. Nor is there any difference in the average age of on- and off-campus employers; the mean is about 40 years for either location. The off-campus work setting is considerably larger than the one on-campus. Students employed away from the college are likely to be working with more of their CWS peers and to find themselves in a relatively large agency. The average regular staff is three times the size of the one in the on-campus unit. These students also earn an average thirty cents an hour more than those working on-campus.

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[1] See Notes on Methodology. While off-campus jobs were held by only 11% of the student respondents (Chapter Four), and while fully 33% of the institutions report having no off-campus program (Chapter Six), 38% of the employers in the sample are located off-campus.

More off-campus agencies have entered the program since 1969, and this action has less frequently been taken as a result of having been approached by the program administrator at the college. Almost three out of five, compared to less than two out of five on-campus employers, report that the jobs currently filled by CWS students have not been filled formerly, which implies that more off-campus employers are creating new positions for the students. A majority of the employers, whether located on- or off-campus provide on-the-job training.

Off-campus employers are more likely than those on-campus to state that they are almost always able to provide employment which is related to the career or academic interests of the students. Perhaps this is partly responsible for their less frequent reports of low student productivity or of students failing to appear for work when scheduled. More of them do indicate that they have difficulty with the paper work required by the Work-Study Coordinator.

Most employers rate student performance as excellent--in fact, one in four gives them this high rating--and the majority could use more students next year. A cutback in the program would apparently be more serious for the financially hard-pressed colleges than for off-campus agencies, although more than a third of the latter feel that their operations would be seriously affected by a reduction in the number of CWS students.

TABLE 7.1

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF ON- AND OFF-CAMPUS EMPLOYERS/AGENCIES

Selected Characteristics	On-Campus	Off-Campus
	(1391)	(841)
Sex of Employer: Male	73.9%	73.4%
Mean Age of Respondent	42.7%	41.1%
Mean Number Full-Time Employees	22.5%	68.4%
Mean Number of Students in Agency or Department	8.9	9.5
Mean Average Pay	$1.78	$2.06
First Hired Students in 1969 or 1970	23.0%	40.4%
Asked by Program Administrator at College to Participate	45.3%	35.2%
Who Filled Jobs Formerly?		
Students not on Work-Study	53.4%	24.8%
Non-students	9.7	19.6
No one	36.9	55.6
Provide On-The-Job Training	67.6%	72.9%
Almost Always Provide Career-Relevant Work	29.2%	41.7%
Considered Major Problems:		
Students fail to show up when expected	58.9%	46.5%
Low productivity or efficiency of students	41.4	31.8
Completing forms required by the government or college	24.7	31.7

TABLE 7.1--Continued

Selected Characteristics	On-Campus	Off-Campus
	(1391)	(841)
Rate CWS Students "Excellent"	24.9%	26.9%
Could Use More CWS Students Next Year or Year After	57.1%	59.1%
Reduction of Number of CWS Students Would Have Serious Effect on Work	48.5%	35.8%
Effects of Program on Agency:		
Able to expand agency operations	65.0%	69.1%
Able to reduce costs	51.4	47.3
Increase understanding of students	50.8%	48.0%
More aware of college events	21.1	29.6
Better educated employees	13.4	23.6
Feel CWS has Improved College-Community Relations	37.0%	61.7%

On- and off-campus employers alike report benefits of the CWS program for the agency or department. Both groups have been able to reduce costs or expand operations as a result of the program. Perhaps more interesting in light of current criticism of college students and talk of the generation gap is the discovery that one half of these employers are of the opinion that they have gained a better understanding of college students. Off-campus employers in particular report that hiring CWS students has helped improve relations between the college and the community.

Chapters Four and Five examined student reports of the advantages reaped from CWS employment. The next section presents employers perceptions of the impact of the CWS program on their student employees.

B. Perceived Impact of the CWS Program on Students

Employers were asked to check possible effects, apart from earnings, that working has had upon CWS employees in the department or agency. Table 7.2 indicates that more than four out of five employers feel that students have acquired "useful skills" and about the same proportion think that students have developed positive attitudes toward work. At the opposite pole, almost no employers think that working has made some students resent having to work.

These positive reports of the impact of the program on students may simply reflect the employer's satisfaction with a program which provides inexpensive labor, and employers may be translating these benefits into perceptions of positive effects on students.

TABLE 7.2

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF CWS PROGRAM ON STUDENTS

Selected Effects of Program On Students	Percent Reporting Effect	Abbreviation[a]
Developed working skills which might be useful in a career	84.4%	Useful Skills
Developed positive attitudes toward work and taking responsibilities	83.5	Positive Attitudes
Provided relief from the boredom of school	20.2	Relieved Boredom
Developed skepticism towards radical activities	6.3	Skepticism
Made some students resent the fact that they have to work	3.2	Resent Work
(N)	(2232)	

Since data are not available to test this possibility, it will be assumed that the employers' reports have face validity.

(1) Employer Status and Agency Size

Table 7.3 presents the reports of program effects on students for employers with different personal and organizational statuses. There is virtually no difference in the perceived impact of working whether the employer is male or female, a college teacher or not, an immediate supervisor or an overseer of the supervisor. Only the

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[a] Abbreviations are used in Tables 7.3 through 7.6.

TABLE 7.3

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF THE CWS PROGRAM ON STUDENTS BY EMPLOYER STATUS AND AGENCY SIZE

Employer Status and Agency Size	(N)	Effects of CWS Program[a]	
		Useful Skills	Positive Attitudes
All Employers	(2232)	84.4%	83.5%
Sex			
Male	(1639)	84.2%	83.7%
Female	(583)	85.1	82.7
College Teacher			
Yes	(860)	84.4%	83.0%
No	(1346)	84.4	83.8
Supervisory States			
Immediate supervisor	(917)	84.4%	81.0%
Over-sees supervision	(1170)	83.8	85.6
Employer's Influence			
Low	(274)	79.2%	76.3%
Medium-low	(582)	82.3	83.7
Medium-high	(361)	86.2	85.9
High	(989)	86.4	85.9
Number of CWS Students Employed			
1	(601)	79.7%	76.4%
2 - 3	(618)	85.8	84.6
4 - 9	(553)	86.6	86.4
10+	(395)	86.8	89.6
Number of Full-Time Employees			
0 - 4	(602)	84.7%	83.2%
5 - 19	(791)	86.2	85.2
20+	(449)	82.2	84.2

TABLE 7.3--Continued

Employer Status and Agency Size	(N)	Effects of CWS Program[a]	
		Useful Skills	Positive Attitudes
Number of Part-Time Employees			
0 - 4	(867)	84.3%	83.4%
5 - 19	(610)	85.6	82.8
20+	(306)	82.7	86.3

[a] None of the dimensions used in this section to classify employers affects the percentages reporting that the CWS job has provided relief from the boredom of school, developed skepticism towards radical activities, or made some students resent the fact that they have to work. Accordingly, with the exception of Table 7.6, these items are excluded from the tables in Section B.

degree of influence these employers exert is remotely related to their perceptions of effects on students.[2] The least influential employers are also the least likely to report that students have developed useful skills or positive attitudes: 79% report useful skills and 76% positive attitudes, while 86% of the most influential employers have perceived both outcomes. These differences are small but consistent. There is also a tendency, for more of the employers who over-see CWS supervision to report positive impacts on students.

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[2] Employers were asked about their influence in three areas: whether they headed a department, influenced budgetary decisions, or influenced general policy decisions. A rating of "low" indicates the employer reports no influence in these areas, while "high" denotes influence in all three areas.

(2) Agency Size

Just as employers or supervisors are fairly unanimous in their perceptions of the effects of the program on student employees, the size of the agency--measured by the number of full-time, part-time, or CWS employees--does not appear to be related to employers' perceptions of program effects. While Table 7.3 documents a direct relationship between the number of CWS students employed and the percentage reporting each of the effects, this relationship could be a function of differential opportunity to observe program effects. In other words, the more CWS students employed, the greater the opportunity to observe the various effects of the program on the students.[3] Neither the number of regular full-time nor part-time employees in the agency is related to the employer's perception of program effects.

(3) Employer/Work-Study Coordinator Linkages

Thus far the data hardly encourage the view that differences in employer characteristics or employment contexts produce differences in perceived impact of the program upon students. Table 7.4, however, suggests that there are response differences when employers are sub-classified by the extent to which they know or have contact with the college's Work-Study Coordinator. For example, 86% of employers acquainted with their Work-Study Coordinator report that students have developed useful skills and the same percentage state that students have gained

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[3] This inference is buttressed by the findings in Appendix Table A.7.1 that the longer an agency has participated in the program, the more likely is the employer to report various program effects.

TABLE 7.4

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF THE CWS PROGRAM ON STUDENTS BY EMPLOYER/WORK-STUDY COORDINATOR LINKAGES AND BY EMPLOYER NEED FOR CWS STUDENTS

Employer-Coordinator Linkages and Employer Need for CWS Students	(N)	Effects of CWS Program	
		Useful Skills	Positive Attitudes
Acquainted with Coordinator			
Yes	(1618)	85.8%	86.5%
No	(569)	80.0	74.9
Perception of CWS Coordinator's Involvement with Students' Working Conditions			
Very involved	(620)	87.3%	90.5%
Somewhat involved	(979)	85.1	84.8
Not involved	(512)	81.6	76.8
Suggested Change in Work-Study			
Yes	(673)	90.6%	88.4%
No	(1527)	81.5	81.3
Complained to College Administrator about Work-Study			
Yes	(679)	84.8%	83.1%
No	(1517)	84.1	83.7
Received Requested Number of Students			
Yes	(1532)	83.6%	82.8%
No	(644)	86.3	86.2
Future Need for CWS			
More	(1283)	87.7%	87.1%
About the same	(885)	81.1	79.9
Fewer or none	(50)	64.0	58.0
Effect of CWS Reduction on Operations			
Serious	(965)	90.3%	90.3%
Moderate	(1095)	82.0	81.0
None	(147)	67.3	60.5

positive attitudes toward work; this contrasts with frequencies of 80% and 75% respectively for those who are not acquainted. Similarly, nine out of ten employers who report tht the Work-Study Coordinator is "very involved" with matters pertaining to students' working conditions, think that CWS employment has given students more positive attitudes toward work; the figure drops to three out of four among employers who claim that the Work-Study Coordinator is not involved in such matters.

The next two items in Table 7.4 show an interesting contrast. Employers who have suggested a change in Work-Study policies or procedures are more likely to observe the two effects on students, but registering a complaint about a CWS students seems to have no bearing on the reported perception of these effects. It might have been expected that employers who have complained would be less likely to detect benefits, but apparently, provocation by a student does not interfere with overall assessment of the program.

In sum, the closer the association between employer and Work-Study Coordinator, the more likely the employer to report program effects on students. Perhaps such associations are greater for employers when students' jobs are of a non-routine, more challenging character, thus calling for employer suggestions for administrative changes and for greater improvement of the Work-Study Coordinator in the agency. In such positions, students may well be more likely to derive useful skills and positive attitudes. Still, it is interesting that even when the linkage between employer and coordinator stems from complaints about a CWS student, employers overwhelmingly attest to the fact that participation in the program is having positive effects on the students.

(4) Employer Need for CWS Students

Employers differ in the extent of their need for CWS students to assist in performing the functions of their departments or agencies. During interviews with employers on many campuses, it was revealed that a few do have difficulty finding concrete work for their CWS employees, but most not only utilize each student assigned to them but exert every effort to obtain more. Table 7.4 shows rather dramatic variations between these two types of employers. While there are not marked differences in reports of the program's impact on students between employers who did or did not receive the number of students requested, almost nine out of ten of the employers desiring a greater number in the future report that the students have developed useful skills and positive attitudes about work, while only six out of ten of the fifty employers reporting no greater need have observed these effects.[4] Similarly, employers who feel that a reduction in the number of CWS students would have serious consequences for their agencies are much more positive in their assessment of the program's impact on students than their counterparts for whom a reduction would have only moderate or no consequences.

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[4] This same small group is more likely than any other employer group to report that CWS students resent having to work.

TABLE 7.5

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF THE CWS PROGRAM BY SKILL-LEVEL OF JOB AND RELEVANCE OF EMPLOYMENT

Skill-Level of Job and Relevance of Employment	(N)	Effects of CWS Program	
		Useful Skills	Positive Attitudes
Weeks Required to Learn CWS Job			
Five or more	(320)	92.8%	84.4%
Three to four	(630)	88.2	85.2
Two	(542)	88.2	85.4
One or less	(647)	74.5	81.3
Provides On-The-Job Training			
Yes	(1514)	89.1%	85.9%
No	(662)	74.2	78.4
Supplies CWS Descriptions			
Yes	(1472)	86.1%	84.4%
No	(708)	80.8	81.6
Student Sent Because Work Related to Academic or Career Interests			
Almost always	(685)	92.6%	84.1%
Sometimes	(1130)	87.0	85.2
Rarely/never	(392)	62.2	78.8
Able to Give Student Academic or Career Related Work			
Almost always	(753)	93.5%	83.9%
Sometimes	(1181)	85.3	84.9
Rarely/never	(286)	56.3	76.6

(5) Skill-Level and Relevance of CWS Jobs

When students are classified by the relationship of their jobs to their academic or occupational interests, job satisfaction is higher and reports of job advantages are substantially more favorable among students who are in major- or career-related employment.[5] In Table 7.5 employers are classified by factors assumed to be indicators of the skill-level of jobs provided for CWS students and by the reported relevance of the employment to academic or career interests. In light of the objectives of the CWS Program it is gratifying to find considerable differences in reported program effects between employers who train students or offer them interest-related work and those who do not. In every instance, the percentage reporting that students have developed useful skills is substantially higher among employers who provide jobs which take the longest time to learn, who provide on-the-job training, who supply job descriptions, or who are able to place students in interest-related work. Although the differences are not as striking, these same employer groups are also more likely to report that students have developed positive attitudes toward work. Since these differences reported by employers are congruent with students' own evaluations of their jobs (see Chapter Five) they are particularly convincing.

(6) Employer Evaluations of Students

Employers were asked to rate the job performance of CWS students, both on an absolute scale ranging from "excellent" to "fair to poor,"

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[5] See Table 4.5 in Chapter Four.

TABLE 7.6

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS
OF THE CWS PROGRAM ON STUDENTS BY
EMPLOYER EVALUATION OF STUDENT PERFORMANCE

Employer Evaluation of Student Performance	(N)	Effects of CWS Program		
		Useful Skills	Positive Attitudes	Resent Work
Rating of Student Performance				
Excellent	(564)	87.2%	89.2%	1.1%
Very Good	(985)	87.7	87.8	2.0
Good	(570)	79.8	76.7	4.9
Fair to Poor	(77)	53.2	37.7	15.6
Comparison of Students with Regulars				
Somewhat better	(258)	84.5%	86.8%	1.2%
About the same	(1385)	86.1	86.4	2.0
Somewhat inferior	(460)	80.2	74.6	7.6

as well as on a relative scale comparing CWS employees with regular employees. Table 7.6 shows the expected result: employers who evaluate students more highly, on either scale, more frequently report that students have developed useful skills and positive attitudes. One percentage stands out in this table--16% of the 77 employers who rate student performance only fair to poor are of the opinion that CWS employment has made some students resent the fact that they have to work. Notice, too, that relatively few of these employers claim to have observed the development of positive attitudes toward work among CWS students.

In sum, employers are overwhelmingly positive in their perceptions of the impact of CWS employment on students. More than eight out of ten report both that students have developed useful skills and have derived positive attitudes toward work. The data indicate that employers who hire large numbers of CWS students, who need these student workers and provide them with work which requires a fair degree of training and which is related to students' academic or career interests--such employers are most likely to feel that their student employees have derived positive benefits from CWS employment.

The preceding analysis has been directed toward employer perceptions of the effects of CWS employment on students. Perhaps an examination of the impact of the program on the department or agency will be more instructive. Therefore, the next section turns to this question.

C. Impact of the CWS Program on Department or Agency

Employers are of course in a better position to weigh the impact of the CWS program on agencies than to assess its effect on students. These evaluations are of more than academic interest; they expose the employers' willingness to utilize CWS students, to enrich the work experience and, as will be noted in the next section, to facilitate the students' access to special or permanent employment.

Employers were asked: "What effects has employing Work-Study students had on your department or agency?" Responses to the first two items alone indicate the extreme importance of the CWS Program for employers. Two of every three report that the program has enabled them

TABLE 7.7

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF CWS PROGRAM ON AGENCY

Selected Program Effects on Agency[a]	Percent Reporting Effect	Abbreviation[b]
Enabled us to expand our operations	66.6%	Expanded Operations
Enabled us to reduce the cost of our operation	49.9	Reduced Costs
Increased our understanding of college students	49.8	Understand Students
Increased our awareness of cultural or other events at the college	24.4	Awareness of Events
Brought in better educated employees	17.3	Better Educated Employees

[a] Only 2% of the employers checked a sixth effect: "created conflicts between our regular employees and students"--this item is excluded from the subsequent analysis.

[b] Abbreviations are used in Tables 7.8 - 7.13.

to expand the agency's operations and half of them note that operational costs have been reduced as a result of the program. An equally high percentage reports increased understanding of students, while one out of four has an increased awareness of activities at the college, and one in six feels that employing CWS students has introduced a more educated type of employee to the agency.

The first two items are unique, however, in that they provide measures of effect of the program on the actual operations of the agency. Such knowledge is vital, as it provides a rather strong indication of employer cooperation in the future. The next section will focus on the factors which account for differences in the percentage of employers reporting that participation in the CWS program has enabled agencies to expand operations or reduce operating costs.

(1) Employer Status

Table 7.8 shows that there is some variation in the reports from employers of different status as to the impact of CWS on their departments or agencies. For example, male employers are more likely than females to report expanded operations, but the women are more likely to report increased understanding of students and awareness of events at the college. College teachers, too, are more likely than non-teachers to note that CWS has enabled them to expand operations but they are less likely to report reduced costs. The teaching staff usually operates within fixed departmental budgets so that the introduction of CWS students may enable them to expand operations, with little possibility or interest in reducing costs. As might be expected, teachers are less likely to report increased awareness of college events or the introduction of better educated employees. Finally, Table 7.8 shows that relatively more influential employers are more likely to report expanded operations, reduced costs, and increased awareness of college events, but somewhat less likely, to report increased understanding of students.

TABLE 7.8

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS
OF THE CWS PROGRAM ON AGENCY BY EMPLOYER STATUS

Employer Status	(N)	Effects of CWS Program on Agency				
		Expanded Operations	Reduced Costs	Understand Students	Awareness of College	Better Educated Employees
All Employers	(2232)	66.6%	49.9%	49.8%	24.4%	17.3%
Sex						
Male	(1639)	68.6%	49.6%	47.8%	22.9%	17.5%
Female	(583)	60.9	50.6	55.1	28.5	16.1
College Teacher						
Yes	(860)	69.5%	46.6%	48.6%	19.8%	13.4%
No	(1346)	64.7	51.9	50.6	27.4	19.8
Level of Supervision						
Immediate Supervisor	(917)	66.4%	49.0%	49.1%	26.8%	18.1%
Over-sees Supervision	(1170)	66.1	50.3	55.1	28.5	16.1
Employer Influence[a]						
Low	(274)	55.5%	41.6%	53.3%	20.4%	17.2%
Medium-Low	(582)	65.1	46.7	50.9	24.6	16.3
Medium-High	(361)	68.1	49.3	47.4	24.6	15.2
High	(989)	70.0	54.1	49.0	25.3	18.5

[a] Employer Influence Index is described in footnote 2 of this chapter.

(2) Agency Size

Table 7.9 reveals that agency size is indeed related to reported program impact. Slightly more than half of the employers of only one student, but three out of four employing ten or more students, report expanded operations as a result of program participation. As the number of CWS employees increases, there is a slight increase in reports of cost reduction, understanding of students, and better educated employees, but no difference in awareness of college events.

Other indicators of agency size allow interesting conjectures. For example, as the number of full-time employees increases, reports of expanded operations due to hiring CWS students tend to decrease; however, the reverse holds for the number of part-time regular employees: the higher the number of part-time employees, the higher the frequency of reports of expanded operations.

The organization with many part-time regular employees appears to be better able to take advantage of part-time student workers. It may well be that a relatively large number of part-time employees permits greater flexibility in work assignments than a similar number of full-time employees who are more firmly cemented into a pattern of established procedures. This interpretation is strengthened by the fact that the number of part-time regular employees is associated with a trend towards reduced costs while the number of full-time employees is not. With CWS students completing the routines of the part-time regular employees, the organization could both expand operations and reduce costs in keeping with the reports. In organizations where full-

TABLE 7.9

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF THE CWS PROGRAM ON AGENCY BY AGENCY SIZE

Agency Size	(N)	Effects of CWS Program on Agency				
		Expanded Operations	Reduced Costs	Understand Students	Awareness of College	Better Educated Employees
All Employers	(2232)	66,6%	49.9%	49.8%	24.4%	17.3%
Number of CWS Students Employed						
1	(601)	55,6%	46.1%	42,9%	24,3%	15.3%
2 - 3	(618)	68,9	50,2	48,9	23,1	15,5
4 - 9	(553)	72,2	51,9	53,9	25,3	17.7
10+	(395)	73.4	52,7	54,7	25,6	21.8
Number of Full-Time Regular Employees						
0 - 4	(602)	69.1%	52,0%	50.2%	26,7%	18.3%
5 - 19	(791)	68.3	49.3	49.7	25.7	16.1
20+	(449)	63,5	51,0	51,9	19,1	16,0
Number of Part-Time Regular Employees						
0 - 4	(867)	66.9%	47,3%	52.4%	27,6%	17.1%
5 - 19	(610)	68.0	51.0	48.4	21.8	15.7
20+	(306)	70,6	55,9	47,7	25,5	25,2

timers are high in number, the CWS students may be taking up functions which were not previously performed, or only peripherally performed by these employees. With CWS students serving simply as adjuncts to the regular employees, program participation neither brings about cost reduction nor permits expansion.

Finally, it may be significant that with an increasing number of part-time regular employees, there is an increase in reports that better educated employees have been introduced through CWS. There is no such trend with increasing numbers of full-time regular employees. This difference suggests that CWS students brought into units employing many part-time people contribute to the real work of the organization by exercising judgment and sharing the responsibility of decision-making.

(3) Employer/Work-Study Coordinator Linkages

The association between employer and Coordinator is most certainly, as Table 7.10 indicates, related to employer perceptions of the impact of the program on their agencies. This is particularly so for the group acquainted with the Coordinator. Reports of increased understanding of students are much higher for this group, which suggests that Coordinators may be stimulating "student-oriented" attitudes. Confirming this suggestion is the finding that employers who report that Coordinators are very involved in the work settings of CWS students are much more likely to report that they have gained understanding of students. Similarly, both acquaintance with and involvement of the Work-Study Coordinator predispose the employer to an increased awareness of

TABLE 7.10

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF THE CWS PROGRAM ON AGENCY BY EMPLOYER/WORK-STUDY COORDINATOR LINKAGES

Employer/Work-Study Coordinator Linkages	(N)	Effects of CWS Program on Agency				
		Expanded Operations	Reduced Costs	Understand Students	Awareness of College	Better Educated Employees
All Employers	(2232)	66.6%	49.9%	49.8%	24.4%	17.3%
Acquainted with Coordinator						
Yes	(1618)	68.2%	50.2%	54.1%	26.4%	17.4%
No	(569)	61.7	48.5	38.1	19.3	17.2
Perception of CWS Coordinator's Involvement						
Very Involved	(620)	72.6%	52.9%	58.4%	31.8%	20.6%
Somewhat Involved	(979)	66.7	48.3	53.0	22.6	15.6
Not Involved	(512)	61.9	52.1	36.9	20.7	16.2
Suggested Change in Work-Study						
Yes	(673)	73.2	51.0	56.0	30.2	19.6
No	(1527)	63.9	49.4	47.1	21.8	16.1
Complained to College Administrator About Work-Study						
Yes	(679)	64.1%	49.0%	53.3%	28.7%	15.3%
No	(1517)	68.0	50.2	48.1	22.7	18.2

college activities. These relationships suggest that a side benefit of the College Work-Study Program has been to reduce the somewhat negative perceptions of colleges and college students which have been expressed by many these past several years.

Again, as is true of the employers' perceptions of the impact of the program on students, a contrast is seen in reports of program impact on the agency between employers who have complained or those who have suggested changes and their quiescent counterparts. The complainers are less likely to report expanded operations as a result of employing CWS students, whereas those making suggestions have a 10% higher number reporting expanded operations. On the other hand, the complainers are more likely than those who have not had occasion to complain to report that they have increased their understanding of students and their awareness of events at the college.

(4) Employer Demand for CWS Students

In the previous section, the employers envisioning the greatest need for CWS students in the future were identified as the ones who were also most likely to perceive that the program has had a positive effect on students' skills and attitudes. In the same way, Table 7.11 indicates that three out of four of these employers report that participation in the program has enabled the agency to expand operations, compared to only about half of the employers with little or no need. Differences in reports of expanded operations as a result of hiring CWS students are even more dramatic when employers are classified by their perceptions of the seriousness of a CWS reduction.

Table 7.11

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS
OF THE CWS PROGRAM ON AGENCY BY SELECTED INDICATORS OF NEED FOR CWS STUDENTS

Indicators of Need For CWS Students	(N)	Effects of CWS Program on Agency				
		Expanded Operations	Reduced Costs	Understand Students	Awareness of College	Better Educated Employees
All Employers	(2232)	66.6%	49.9%	49.8%	24.4%	17.3%
Received Requested Number of Students						
Yes	(1532)	65.3%	49.3%	50,0%	24.3%	16.3%
No	(644)	71,6	52,0	51.1	25,8	19.1
Future Need for CWS Students						
More	(1283)	74,6%	53.6%	51,7%	26.3%	20.9%
About the Same	(885)	57.5	45,1	48,2	21.9	12.4
Fewer or None	(50)	32,0	40,0	34,0	18,0	8.0
Effect of CWS Reduction						
Serious	(965)	81,9%	56.4%	57,3%	28.3%	21,1%
Moderate	(1095)	59.3	46.6	45.5	22.6	14.9
None	(147)	25,8	34.0	34,7	14.3	10.2

The relationships between the employer's need for CWS students and reduced costs parallel those between need and expanded operations In other words, the greater the agency's need for students and the more serious the repercussions posed by a possible reduction in the number of students available, the more likely a report that participation in the program has enabled a reduction in costs. In this particular case, it obviously makes more sense to reverse the causal chain: in other words, in agencies where operations have been expanded or costs reduced as a result of participation in the program, employers foresee more serious effects of a reduction.

These "bread and butter" concerns of employers are hardly surprising. But the finding that employers with greater needs also report increased understanding of students and awareness of college events stimulates further interest. Perhaps employers who need more students are currently using CWS employees in functionally more central ways. Consequently, they become more involved with and understanding of their students, and through their increased involvement more aware of college events. Again, these relationships point to the fact that participation in the program has potential for increasing cooperation and understanding between the college and its surrounding community.

(5) Skill-Level and Relevance of Job

It has become apparent that the greater the need for CWS students, the more likely the report of a positive benefit for the agency or department. Table 7.12 indicates that the skill-level and relevance

TABLE 7.12

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF THE PROGRAM ON AGENCY BY SKILL-LEVEL AND RELEVANCE OF JOB

Skill-Level and Relevance of Job	(N)	Effects of CWS Program on Agency				
		Expanded Operations	Reduced Costs	Understand Students	Awareness of College	Better Educated Employees
All Employers	(2232)	66.6%	49.9%	49.8%	24.4%	17.3%
Number of Weeks Required to Learn CWS Job:						
One or Less	(647)	61.8%	48.2%	47.9%	23.3%	16.1%
Two	(542)	70.1	52.4	49.8	25.5	18.8
Three or Four	(630)	69.4	51.3	50.8	23.6	18.6
Five or More	(320)	68.4	47.8	55.0	27.5	15.3
Does Employer Provide On-the-Job Training?						
Yes	(470)	70.1%	50.7%	52.0%	27.6%	19.3%
No	(1729)	58.2	48.3	45.3	17.2	12.8
Does Employer Supply CWS Job Descriptions?						
Yes	(1472)	71.0%	50.7%	51.0%	25.7%	18.3%
No	(708)	57.8	48.0	47.5	21.9	14.5

TABLE 7.12--Continued

Skill-Level and Relevance of Job	(N)	Effects of CWS Program on Agency				
		Expanded Operations	Reduced Costs	Understand Students	Awareness of College	Better Educated Employees
Student Sent Becasue Work Related to Interests						
Almost Always	(685)	71.5%	44.4%	51.7%	29.5%	23.9%
Sometimes	(1130)	68.6	52.3	51.6	23.9	15.8
Rarely/Never	(392)	53.6	52.3	41.6	17.3	8.7
Employer Able to Give Related Work						
Almost Always	(753)	72.6%	45.3%	51.0%	27.9%	24.0%
Sometimes	(1181)	67.4	51.7	51.1	24.2	14.7
Rarely/Never	(286)	47.6	53.8	40.6	15.4	9.8

of the jobs available for the students are also related to reports of the impact of the program on the agency. The higher the skill-level of the work--as indicated by the number of weeks it takes to learn the job and whether on-the-job training is provided--the more likely are employers to report that participation in the program has enabled them to expand their operations, and increase their understanding of students and awareness of college events. Similarly, when employers supply job descriptions to the Coordinator and provide students with work that is related to academic or career interests, they are substantially more likely to report expansion of their agencies' operations as a result of participation in the program. However, the skill-level of students' jobs is not related, and the relevance of students' employment inversely related, to employer reports that hiring CWS students has resulted in cost reductions.

In other words, employers who permit students to learn and apply their skills in functionally relevant ways are more likely to report that the program has enabled expansion of operations. Other employers either may not have the resources or the willingness to make such investments in students. The student employed by these other units may be assigned to work which requires less skill or is less challenging but which is likely to lead to cost reduction rather than to expanded operations. These findings underscore a dilemma for employers. To enable students to develop useful skills and positive attitudes through on-the-job training, job descriptions, and the provision of academic or career-related work may go hand in hand with expansion of agency operations. On the other hand, employers who provide training for students and who try to give their CWS employees relevant work are not likely to realize the benefits of cost reductions. While students may be most needed in just those contexts where problems of economic survival are the most severe, those who work in such settings may do so at some sacrifice of positive benefits to themselves.[6]

Furthermore, employers who are unable or unwilling to provide relevant work or to invest in training students are losing important secondary benefits of the program for themselves since they are consistently less likely to report increased understanding of students or awareness of events at the college.

(6) Employer Evaluation of Students

In discussing the relationship between employer evaluation of CWS students and their reports of the impact of the program on students, (Table 7.6) it was noted that many employers who did not give students a rating of "excellent" perceived benefits of the program for students. Table 7.13 suggests that this is not the case for employer reports of program effects on the agencies. The lower the employers rate the CWS employee (either absolutely or relatively) the less likely are they to report that participation in the program has enabled them to expand operations.[7]

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[6] Table 7.5 reveals that 94% of employers who are able to give relevant work to students report that students acquire useful skills, compared to only 56% of employers who rarely or never provide relevant work.

[7] It may be that employers are more knowledgeable about CWS impact on their agencies than about the benefits of the program for students. Consequently, they attribute benefits to students even when their assessment of student performance is low, but recognize that their agencies are not reaping comparable benefits by employing these students.

TABLE 7.13

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF THE CWS PROGRAM ON AGENCIES BY EVALUATION OF CWS STUDENTS' JOB PERFORMANCE

Evaluation of CWS Students' Job Performance	(N)	Effects of CWS Program on Agency				
		Expanded Opera-tions	Reduced Costs	Under-stand Students	Awareness of College	Better Educated Employees
All Employers	(2232)	66.6%	49.9%	49.8%	24.4%	17.3%
Rating of Student Performance						
Excellent	(564)	73.8%	50.2%	54.1%	28.0%	28.2%
Very Good	(985)	71.2	52.6	51.8	25.5	17.2
Good	(570)	56.8	46.1	45.6	18.9	9.1
Fair to Poor	(77)	32.5	44.2	29.9	19.5	1.3
Comparison of Students with Regulars						
Somewhat Better	(258)	70.9%	51.6%	48.8%	28.7%	40.7%
About the Same	(1385)	70.5	51.9	50.5	24.8	16.4
Somewhat Inferior	(460)	54.3	45.0	48.9	21.7	6.1

The level of student performance as perceived by the employer bears little relationship to reduction of costs for the agency. Perhaps students who are rated highly by their employers are performing non-routine, challenging tasks which generate high levels of motivation but at the same time require investment in skill training, and consequently less probability of realizing cost reductions.

Finally, the differences in the last column of Table 7.13 suggest that the level of education of regular employees sets expectations for student performance. Employers who rate performance of their CWS students as excellent or as somewhat better than that of the regular employees are also more likely to report that CWS has brought them better educated employees.[8]

The focus thus far has been on the impact of the CWS program on students and employing agencies as perceived by employers. It has been found that employers of CWS students overwhelmingly attest to the value of the program as a vehicle for developing skills and for augmenting positive attitudes toward work. Relatively few employers think that

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[8] If this relationship is viewed the other way around, the employer who admits that CWS participation has brought in better educated employees is almost twice as likely to rate student performance as excellent, and three times as likely to view it as better than that of the regular work force.:

CWS has Brought in Better Educated Employees:	Student Performance Rated "Excellent"	Student Performance Better Than That of Regular Employees
Yes	41.8% (381)	29.2% (360)
No	22.3 (1815)	8.8 (1743)

CWS employment has made students resentful of having to work. The key factors which differentiate employers' perceptions of program impact on students are first, the need for CWS students, second, the skill-level or relevance of the work assigned to the students, third, the association between the employer and the CWS Coordinator at the college, and finally evaluation of job performance.

These same factors differentiate the reports from employers regarding the effects of participation in the program on their agencies. The greater the demand for CWS students, the higher the skill-level or relevance of the jobs, the closer the association between the employer and the coordinator, or the more positive the evaluation of these part-time student employees--the more likely is the employer to report that participation in the program has enabled the agency or department to expand operations. Similarly, these employers are more likely to derive secondary benefits from participation in the program such as an increased understanding of students or awareness of events taking place at the college.

A possible source of conflict for employers stems from the fact that these positive benefits accruing to the agency do not go hand in hand with the effect of enabling the agency to reduce its costs as a result of hiring CWS students.[9] Neither an on-the-job training program nor the provision of job descriptions is conducive to reducing costs, while these same measures--which imply effective utilization of available manpower--do appear to facilitate expanded operations. Agencies, therefore, which are struggling to keep their heads above water--and this is of course true of many institutions of higher learning today--may be forced to use students in routine, easily learned positions, often replacing regular employees. While this may effect a reduction in costs, it is not associated to the same degree with the other "positive" benefits to students and agencies reported by employers.

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[9] The legislation stipulates that a major goal of the CWS program is expansion of work opportunities, not reduction of agency or department costs. At the same time, many employers--especially those on-campus --do see the program as a means of economic survival in the face of rising deficits. (See Chapter Six)

Section D. Unintended Benefits of CWS Employment

Previous chapters have documented the appraisals of the students involved in the CWS program. They are generally in accord that they have acquired useful skills, both vocational and social. Similarly, most aid administrators and employers agree that working has had a positive impact on the students' attitudes toward work, and has provided them with skills or knowledge which may be useful in their future careers. From the point of view of these three groups--student, employer and CWS coordinator--the explicit goals of the CWS program are being fulfilled. An evaluation, however, seeks to do more than provide evidence which points to the achievement of intended goals. It includes a search for the "unanticipated consequences which when recognized would also be regarded as relevant to the social-action agency."[10]

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[10] H. H. Hyman and C. R. Wright, "Evaluating Social Action Programs," in *The Uses of Sociology*, ed. by Paul F. Lazarsfeld, et. al. (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1967), p. 759.

Interestingly, neither in the legislation, nor in any of the directives, memoranda, or manuals for the CWS Program is mention made of CWS as a means of facilitating the student's transition from the campus into permanent employment. Skill and attitude development accruing from a CWS job may of course enhance success in pursuing a career. It should not be overlooked, however, that the low-income/minority student may be at a disadvantage when job-hunting. Firms which recruit on college campuses may have several positions available for minority students, but in the main their recruits are drawn from the top 10% of the graduating class--the portion with the lowest representation from the low-income/minority groups of students. Nor do the parents or friends of these students have the knowledge, contacts, or ability to help in gaining access to a good job during the summer or after graduation. Therefore, a very practical measure of the "success" of the CWS Program might well be the relative number of students whose passage into the regular occupational structure has been facilitated by recommendations from CWS supervisors, or offers of employment from the participating agency but this time without being subsidized by government funds. In other words, an experience designed as one of anticipatory socialization for future employment, actually becomes the summer job or the permanent job after graduation.

This section describes the types of CWS positions which appear to facilitate the student's passage into the "real" occupational world. After noting the characteristics of employers or the work setting which are most likely to offer "employment potential" (EP) the discussion will turn to the question of the pros and cons of incorporating employment potential into the program objectives.

(1) Employment Potential (EP) Index

Employers were asked to report the frequency with which they have prepared job recommendations for students or offered students employment at the agency's expense. A response of "frequently" to all but the first of these items, is an indication of the employer's willingness to retain students for additional services without benefit of Federal subsidy. While a positive response to the first item does not provide the student with actual employment, it serves to pave his way in his search for such employment. On the basis of the data in Table 7.14, a simple Employment Potential Index (EPI) was constructed by summing employers' positive responses to each of these four items and weighting them.[11]

In a sense, positive responses to these items also serve as an indicator of the employer's satisfaction with the CWS Program and with the students they employ. However, the score is viewed as an index of employment potential rather than of employer satisfaction since employers may well be satisfied with their CWS employees but unable to express their satisfaction through these particular modes. In the first place, they must have funds available to give students for employment after the CWS allocation is exhausted. Similarly, many on-campus employers

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[11] Weights: "frequently"=2, "once or twice"=1, "never"=0. For recommendations, "frequently"=1, twice or less=0.

TABLE 7.14

FREQUENCY WITH WHICH EMPLOYERS REPORT HAVING DONE EACH OF THE COMPONENT ACTIVITIES OF THE EP INDEX

Component Activities of EP Index	(n)	Frequency		
		Frequently	Once or Twice	Never
Prepared job recommendations for CWS students	(2102)	40.5%	37.8%	21.7%
Asked CWS students to work extra hours at the expense of the department or agency	(2102)	10.1	36.1	53.8
Offered CWS students work as regular employees during the summer or after Federal funds run out	(2102)	18.6	38.1	43.2
Suggested that CWS students become regular employees after graduation	(2102)	10.3	28.8	60.8

may have little need for the student's services during the summers or on a regular basis after graduation. Consequently, it would be an error to conclude that employers who do not report these activities are dissatisfied with the CWS Program.

Tables 7.15(a) and 7.15(b) present the associations between EPI and the employer's reports of program effects of CWS on students employed by the agency. Part (a) shows a 25% difference in the number of employers at the high and at the low extreme of the index reporting that students have acquired useful skills, a 22% difference among those stating

TABLE 7.15(a)

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF CWS EMPLOYMENT ON STUDENTS BY SCORE ON EMPLOYER POTENTIAL INDEX

Employment Potential Index (EPI)	(n)	Percent Reporting Effect				
		Useful Skills	Positive Attitudes	Relief Boredom	Skepticism of Radical Activities	Resent-ment of Work
All Employers	(2102)	84.6%	83.9%	20.6%	6.4%	3.0%
5 - 7 (High)	(232)	94.8	91.4	28.4	14.2	3.9
3 - 4	(606)	91.4	89.9	25.1	8.1	3.0
2	(443)	85.3	83.3	16.5	5.4	2.9
1	(425)	82.8	84.0	17.4	3.3	2.1
0 (Low)	(396)	69.4	69.7	16.9	3.5	3.3

TABLE 7.15(b)

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING
SELECTED EFFECTS OF CWS ON AGENCY
BY SCORE ON EMPLOYER POTENTIAL INDEX

Employment Potential Index (EPI)	(n)	Percent Reporting Effect				
		Expanded Operations	Reduced Costs	Understand Students	Awareness of College	Better Educated
All Employers	(2102)	66.8%	50.3%	49.8%	24.8%	17.2%
5 - 7 (High)	(232)	78.4	57.8	62.1	37.9	29.7
3 - 4	(606)	71.8	55.9	57.8	30.7	20.3
2	(443)	67.9	49.9	44.5	22.3	18.3
1	(425)	64.9	48.7	48.5	18.6	12.9
0 (Low)	(396)	53.0	39.4	37.6	17.7	8.3

that students have gained positive attitudes toward work, but the gap between these two extreme groups falls to 11% when more secondary outcomes are compared.

Part (b) of the table shows that employers high on the EPI are about half again as likely to report expanding their operations as a consequence of participating in the CWS program. They are equally more likely to report reduced costs, as well as greater understanding of college students, increased awareness of college activities, and the presence of better educated employees.

Both parts of the table support the conclusion that employers who facilitate the passage of students from the CWS program into the "real" world of employment are more cognizant of the effects the program has had on both students and employing units.

From a programmatic point of view the next step in the analysis is an examination of the relationship between EPI and characteristics of the jobs assigned to CWS students. Such an analysis may suggest the feasibility of increasing the flow of students to those work situations which provide the greatest opportunity for future employment.

(2) Employment Potential and Job Type

Table 7.16 presents the employer's description of the typical job held by students in the department or agency. It is clear that certain kinds of jobs are more frequently located on-campus, while others tend to be almost exclusively off-campus. For example, of the 847 agencies in which clerical positions are most typical, 72% (619)

TABLE 7.16

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS SCORING HIGH[a] ON EPI BY KIND OF JOB MOST TYPICALLY OFFERED CWS STUDENTS AND BY LOCATION

Typical CWS Job	Location			
	On-Campus		Off-Campus	
All Employers	35.2%	(1159)	46.4%	(679)
Clerical	32.1	(619)	38.6	(228)
Teaching, Research, Laboratory Assistant	30.2	(179)	44.6	(56)
Athletic, Recreation Assistant	33.3	(24)	59.8	(112)
Library, Museum Assistant	37.6	(85)	33.3	(30)
Tutoring, Classroom Assistant	47.7	(44)	52.9	(51)
Social or Community Action Aide	b	(6)	55.8	(77)
Security, Maintenance Aide	25.0	(44)	33.3	(18)
Technician, Data Processing	50.0	(42)	33.3	(15)
Other[c]	50.9	(116)	47.8	(92)

[a] Employers whose responses totaled three or more were ranked "high" on the EPI. (See Table 7.15)

[b] Base too small to compute percent.

[c] Includes hospitality or food service aides, news, radio, or television assistant, arts and crafts assistant, health professions aide, government or judicary assistant and agriculture or horticulture assistant.

are located on-campus. Conversely, 93% of the 83 agencies typically employing students as social or community aides are located off-campus.

A second fact which emerges from an examination of Table 7.16 is that jobs which are typically located off-campus have a high number of employers with maximum scores on the EPI. Almost half (46%) of employers in off-campus locations, but just 35% of those on-campus score high on the index. Interestingly, the location of the agency, rather than the type of work most frequently performed by students, seems to be crucial. In more instances than not, a higher proportion of off-campus employers than on-campus ones score high on the EPI even when students in their agency or department are typically doing the same kind of work. In general, employers who offer students jobs as athletic or recreation assistants, social or community aides or tutoring or classroom assistants are most likely to score high on the EPI.

In sum, this section has presented data which suggest that the jobs CWS students hold and the location of the agency or department in which they work provide varying opportunities for continued employment or for facilitating entry into the labor market.[12]

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[12] For the interested reader, an analysis of the relationship to employment potential of various characteristics of the agencies employing CWS students appears in Appendix Tables A.7.2 - A.7.7. The results of this analysis suggest that employment potential is highest among employers who:

(1) Are located off-campus
(2) Employ a greater number of students and regular workers
(3) Provide jobs which are relevant to students' academic interests and which require some on-the-job training
(4) Have a relatively high need for CWS students
(5) Are acquainted with and have had contact with the CWS Coordinator at the college.

This is not to suggest that the CWS Coordinators be asked to assess the employment potential of available employment settings and then route students to those work situations which provide high employment potential. Obviously, there are many CWS jobs which are low in employment potential but which offer students relevant, challenging work, foster the development of useful skills, and instill feelings of responsibility and usefulness. A faculty member, for example, can hardly hire a CWS employee to teach in his department after hours, during the summer, or after graduation; yet reports from all sectors indicate that employment as a teaching, research, or laboratory assistant is beneficial for all concerned.

The lack of employment potential, therefore, is not sufficient condition for rejecting an employer from participation in the CWS program. In light of these findings, however, a Work-Study Coordinator may wish to place students in positions which have low employment potential but which do have potential for providing students with interesting, challenging, responsible work. On the other hand, a coordinator should carefully assess work situations which are both low in employment potential and relatively low in the rate of benefits accruing to the students.

The data clearly suggest that off-campus employment--in addition to providing students with more career-related, satisfying, skill-producing jobs[13]-- also appears to yield a hitherto unanticipated benefit in the form of additional or permanent employment. The employment potential of off-campus agencies is, of course, not uniform, but is related to such factors as the size of the agency, its resources, its demand for student employees, its linkages with the college, and--most important--the type of work assigned to students. Still, there is little question but that the emphasis among program officials at the federal level on increasing the ratio of off- to on-campus employment is not only congruent with the explicit goals of the CWS program, but also, if prudently implemented, can facilitate the low-income student's passage to permanent employment.

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[13] See Chapters Four and Five.

CHAPTER EIGHT

PROCESSING APPLICATIONS

Abstract

This chapter moves away from the local scene into the policy arena. It begins with an account of the events leading up to a major modification in the application form distributed to the institutions. This section is followed by a synopsis of the preparations for formal review of the applications by a panel of program administrators from the federal, regional, and institutional levels. The proceedings of these panels are described and potential sources of bias discussed. The chapter closes with a view of program administration from Washingtion and the Regions.

CHAPTER EIGHT

PROCESSING APPLICATIONS

A. The Washington Scene

The most crucial factor in the operation of the three federal student financial aid programs is the availability of funds at both the national and institutional levels. The Congress determines the amount of tax revenue that will be utilized for this particular need; but once the appropriation is set, administrators within the Division of Student Financial Aid (DSFA) are responsible for distributing the funds among all the institutions wishing to participate in the programs.

In order to gain insight into this aspect of program management within the Division, members of the research staff attended the DSFA meetings held in Washington to plan the processing of FY '72 applications. In addition, they observed events at the regional panel meetings convened to review the applications; they followed the subsequent appeal of the panel recommendations to national hearings; and they conducted interviews with program officials in Washington and in the regional offices.

This simple precis of the sources of information regarding the distribution of federal student financial aid funds belies the impact of the decisions taken during that short interval. Changes were wrought which negated the past. FY '72 marked a fresh beginning in the history of Federal Student Financial Aid.

This does not imply that the programs have been static since their inception. Innovations have been gradual and rather unobtrusive. A review of documents distributed through federal offices reveals the responsive nature of the programs. Definitions have been modified; forms revised to close information gaps; program directives altered; basic legislation amended, or national priorities reordered.[1] Each of these actions has had a direct bearing on subsequent events, with effects cumulating over time. Singling out the stable factors that have persisted throughout the years would require a continuous presence at the yearly series of meetings. Observing a process for one moment in time restricts the relevance of the findings to that moment and inhibits the derivation of generalizations. As a consequence, this discussion of the funding procedures for FY '72 should be viewed as a detached chapter in the history of the federal aid programs. It has no direct ties to the past and only a potential link with the future.

Several factors set FY '72 apart and contribute to the aura of change that was present in the final months of 1970. To begin with, a new regional office had opened in July; another moved to a different city; still others had geographic boundaries redefined. Policy changes implemented after the first of September necessitated the last minute alteration of the Application Form and modification of procedures. Even the regional panel meetings themselves were unique: inclement weather delayed arrivals and eroded the time set aside for the all-important orientation session. For the first time, representatives from the Office of the Secretary-DHEW had been sent to observe the proceedings; a member of the research team circulated from group to group taking notes. With new personnel and many neophyte panel members added to the scene, uncertainty prevailed.

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[1] a) Compare application forms used in FY'71, FY'72 and FY'73.
b) See also pending legislation--House Bill 7248, Senate Bill 659.
c) Even the Division of Student Financial Aid has become extinct. Special Services and Financial Aid have been merged. The new unit has been titled the Division of Student Assistance.

The major disquieting event was the genesis of page 1-1. Since the circumstances surrounding its introduction set the tone for subsequent happenings, it is the natural starting point for tracing the flow of events in preparation for FY'72 funding.

At the close of each fiscal year, planning for the one beginning a year hence gets underway. The application form must be designed, printed, and distributed before the first of October. The criteria for evaluating the applications require review and adaptation to current conditions; panel members must be selected, and the calendar set so that notification of awards can be sent to institutions by the middle of April. These are the matters which were discussed at the Washington meetings.

In the late summer months of 1970, when the design for the FY'72 application was close to perfection, representatives of a special Task Force appointed by Frederick V. Malek, Deputy Undersecretary of DHEW, introduced a new data sheet to be incorporated in the application. This form required more detailed information than had previously been demanded by the Division. The institution was to be asked to forecast the number of students from various income levels in need of financial aid during the academic year 1971-72, and to show the average amounts of support available to these students from state, local, personal, and philanthropic sources. Unmet need in each income group was then to be calculated and from these figures, anticipated expenditures for each federal program would be derived. The proponents of the form were confident that it would facilitate determining the magnitude of need at the post-secondary level throughout the nation and would help identify groups of students requiring a greater concentration of federal funds. This means of securing the information had been sanctioned at the highest levels and in effect was irrevocable.

Officials in the Division questioned the prudence of such an action. No one disapproved of the objective, but there was unanimous opposition to the abrupt, unannounced introduction of a time-consuming requirement. The officials expressed concern that repercussions from the financial aid community would abound; income data for the student population on campus was not generally available. And, what effect would such information have on the allocation of funds? Delay was urged, or at least postponement until financial aid officers could be consulted and a commitment to the objective obtained. Without such a precaution, it was the opinion of the group that the data would be of questionable validity, if supplied at all. In addition, gross family income was to be used as an indicator of need--a figure wholly unsatisfactory for reflecting number of dependents or extenuating circumstances which are normal allowances in assessing individual need.[2] These objections were answered with the reassurance that the form would be used exclusively as an information-gathering device. With that, the issue was closed: Page 1-1 became a fact.

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[2] *Determining Awards Under Federal Student Aid Programs*, U.S. Office of Education, DHEW: Bureau of Higher Education, Division of Student Financial Aid, March, 1968, p. 3-4.

Controversy within the Division of Student Financial Aid lingered after the meetings adjourned, but in other federal offices, plans for utilizing the new data were being formulated. The concept of targeting was introduced as a means of implementing the goal enunciated in the March 19, 1970 Presidential message to Congress. President Nixon urged that "...we expand and revamp student aid so that it places more emphasis on helping low-income students than it does today."[3] While family income had always been a dominant factor in appraising individual financial need, it was now to become the basis for awarding Program funds to institutions.[4] The monies available for EOG and CWS in each state were to be distributed among the applicant schools by completely satisfying adjusted need within the lowest income bracket before moving into the next bracket and progressively working up the income scale until funds were exhausted.

Irrespective of the genesis of the policy or formula, such turncoat behavior was anathema to the Division. Program officials, both regionally and nationally, had been striving to develop a sense of partnership with financial aid officers and divest their offices of any taint of bureaucracy. Indignation was rife. There were warnings that such a practice would only diminish the funds going to the school which had continuously declared need for 100% of the student body. But once again, arguments were to no avail.

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[3] Nixon, Richard, "Message from the President of the United States on Higher Education Opportunities," House of Representatives, 91st Congress , 2nd Session, Document No. 91-282.

[4] Previously, allocations within a state had been distributed on an equal share basis. The weight factor for each program was derived by dividing the state appropriation by the sum of the amounts recommended for each school in the state. The amount recommended for each school was then multiplied by this factor to determine the amount of program support that would be received.

The DSFA officials were asked to support the commitment, despite the dissension piqued by the decision. The Division was concerned that a credibility loss might result if the targeting principle were initiated without a public declaration of intent. As a consequence, a notice was prepared for the Federal Register which guaranteed that no institution would receive less than 80% of the allocation that had been received for FY'71, following necessary adjustments. The notice was to be circulated in December before applications were to be reviewed at the panel meetings, but it did not appear until February 4, 1971.[5] All rejoinders were directed to the personal attention of a Task Force member. No one from the Division was invited to review the comments. The final statement, basically unchanged, appeared on March 16, 1971.[6]

The Task Force has long since been officially dissolved, but the discord has not been so quick to disappear. Charges of being an "arbitrary actor" continue to be hurled at OE. Even after a year has lapsed, the distribution of the FY'73 application evoked approximately 500 complaints. Each has required an individual response. Some demands for change have been carried directly to the Congress. In the view of one Washington official, these attacks have jeopardized relationships with former DSFA supporters on the Hill. It is anticipated that restoration of calm will be a long-term project.

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[5] Office of Education, "Proposed Rule Making," *Federal Register*, Vol. XXXVI, No. 24, p. 2403, February 4, 1971.

[6] Office of Education, "College Work-Study Program: Allocation of Student Aid Funds to Institutions," *Federal Register*, Vol. XXXVI, No. 51, p. 4984, March 16, 1971.

B. In the Regions

While these activities were going on in Washington, a more normal pace was being maintained in the Regions. The fall workshops were convened; but this time, a more complex application form had to be explained. During these sessions, the financial aid officers questioned the utilization of the data to be reported on page 1-1. While there was some tendency to hedge when answering, most replies conveyed the same message the Senior Program Officers had received in Washington. Those in attendance were reassured that the figures were expected to be estimates; and, as one regional officer phrased it, in some cases would be nothing more than "guesstimates."

But the instructions and general information that were carried into the field failed to reach every program administrator. Once the Senior Program Officer was back in the office, there were numerous telephone inquiries to answer; early returns to catalogue and edit. A glimpse of the first few applications was enough to reveal the magnitude of the chaos. Each application would have to be checked before being forwarded to Washington for computer processing. Many contained arithmetic errors, and some were devoid of information on page 1-1. Once the targeting principle had been decided upon, there was no choice. The applications would have to be returned to the schools and the deadline extended--further delaying an already lagging time line.

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[7] These workshops serve a dual purpose for the programs. They not only permit the dissemination of information to a relatively large number of persons simultaneously, but also provide a training ground for the inexperienced financial aid officer. However, neither function can displace the benefits of personal contact among aid officers and program officials.

Acceptance of the application by the Regional Office closes the initial phase of the funding process. For once they have all been collected, they must be assessed to determine the reasonableness of the requests for program operations. In providing for the performance of this function, the Office of Education has followed the inferred intent of the original legislation which grants a controlling interest in the programs to the administrators[8] of eligible institutions.[9] To implement this intent, program officials have institutionalized the concept of colleagual review; which, in essence, assures each financial aid officer of a hearing by a jury of his peers.

A small number of the aid administrators from the participating schools in each region are invited to assist the government in making funding recommendations. The prospective participants are selected mainly by the Senior Program Officer in consultation with members of the regional supporting staff, and with the advice and consent of the Director of Higher Education. In two regions, suggestions for qualified candidates are solicited from officers of the major financial aid associations in the locale.[10]

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[8] Local administrators determine which--if any at all--of the three programs they wish to use in providing support for their students. In turn the financial aid officer is delegated the authority to select which of the students applying for aid will receive federal support and to apportion awards among them. He has the prerogative to undersupport a large number of students and risk perpetuating poverty and possibly raising the dropout rate or to provide full support to fewer students and risk reprisals for limiting opportunity and "spoiling the child," or, as most do, to take the middle road.

[9] The major criteria for eligibility are type of program offered and accreditation. For a complete statement of the requirements refer to page 2-1 of the CWS Manual.

Panel members are purposely selected for competence in program management, for exercising judgment respected by members of the state association, for their knowledge of general economic conditions in the state of residence, and for familiarity with participating schools and program directors in their vicinities. The Senior Program Officer also attempts to develop continuity in the review process by incorporating aid officers with previous panel experience to help guide the ones who will be serving for the first time.

Following regional consensus, the list of recommendations is forwarded to Washington for review, where approval is automatic. It is expected that the panelists will be representative of the universe. The members are to be drawn from all types and sizes of institutions, and each state is to have at least one representative. Upon scanning the list for FY'72, it was determined that these broad requirements had been satisfied.

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[10] These associations are gaining strength and are beginning to play a more important role in program management. Some are gradually taking over the training function that has been performed by program officials in the past. It came out later that one of the tangential benefits of panel participation expected by the Senior Program Officers is the sharing of the newly acquired knowledge with association members at the next meeting.

Member concern for the quality of program administration was expressed during the meetings. As a group, the applications of proprietary and vocational schools were judged as poorly prepared. It was suggested that the aid officers from these schools be encouraged to join the association so that they could improve their performance.

Considering the fact that the panel participation is limited--the number of members ranged from six to sixteen--these requirements may not be so easily met as appears on the surface. With both institutions and students involved in the federal programs, there are two sectors to take into account in determining representation. A distribution of characteristics that conforms to the pattern of the universe for one group does not necessarily imply a comparably satisfactory likeness for the other. If the proportion of each of these sectors represented by the panel on a national scale is accepted as the standard, the fluctuations from this expectation for institutions can be easily traced in Figure 1; those for the program students in Figure 2.

As the first section of Figure 1 shows, the FY'72 panel members were drawn from four percent of the participating institutions. If the characteristics of the universe are to be preserved, this proportion should remain fairly constant as the type of institutional characteristic changes. The profile which comes closest to fulfilling this expectation is the one for the control of the institution. In moving to the section of the graph depicting predominant racial composition of the school, it is rather startling to discover that almost 7% of the black schools are represented by panel members. With white schools outnumbering black ones by a ratio of 25:1, the graph reflects the forethought given to the selections to ensure adequate minority representation on the panels. When institutions are designed by type, the universities predominate. One out of nine universities is represented, whereas only one of every fifty proprietary schools has been invited to participate. Overrepresentation is also reflected in size of CWS programs, with the schools having large-sized

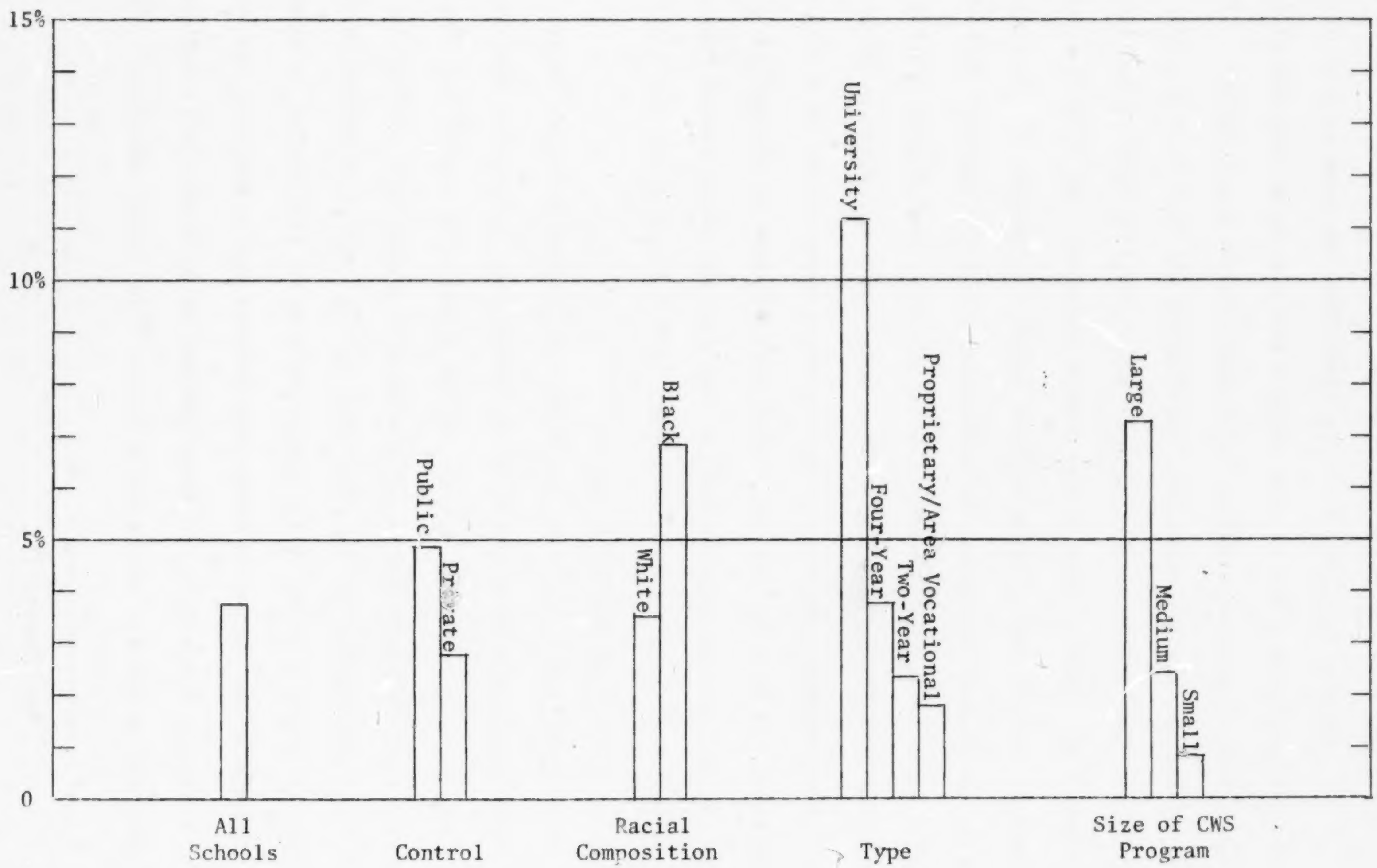

Figure 8.1

PERCENT OF INSTITUTIONS IN PROGRAM UNIVERSE REPRESENTED BY PANEL MEMBERS programs dwarfing the other two classes.

Turning to Figure 2, it is clear that the same type of discrepancies persist, and in some classes are even more pronounced for the number of program students represented by the panel members. These distributions are not surprising considering the fact that financial aid officers from these types of schools have generally been in the field a longer time, tend to have fairly stable positions, and distribute vast sums of federal monies among a large number of students,[11] In addition, with the regions operating independently, a uniform national distribution would be virtually impossible to achieve. Each Senior Program Officer attempts to have the various subgroups represented by at least one panel member. On the regional level, a count of one in a single category can bias the outcome. When this tendency is multiplied by a factor of ten, the repercussions on the national scale become exaggerated. Striving toward the utopian ideal of satisfying all factions is not without attendant costs.

The major question is whether one person from each constituency is capable of speaking for an individual institution when the application is reviewed. It is general practice to assign the panel members to subgroups and to divide the work among them. The applications distributed to the sub-panels may be limited to either institutions within a state or to a specific type of institution in order to minimize the variation among applications and to maximize the benefits of selective expertise. In these groups, uniform--not individualized--treatment became the guiding principle. Under these conditions, the whole

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[11] See Chapter Six.

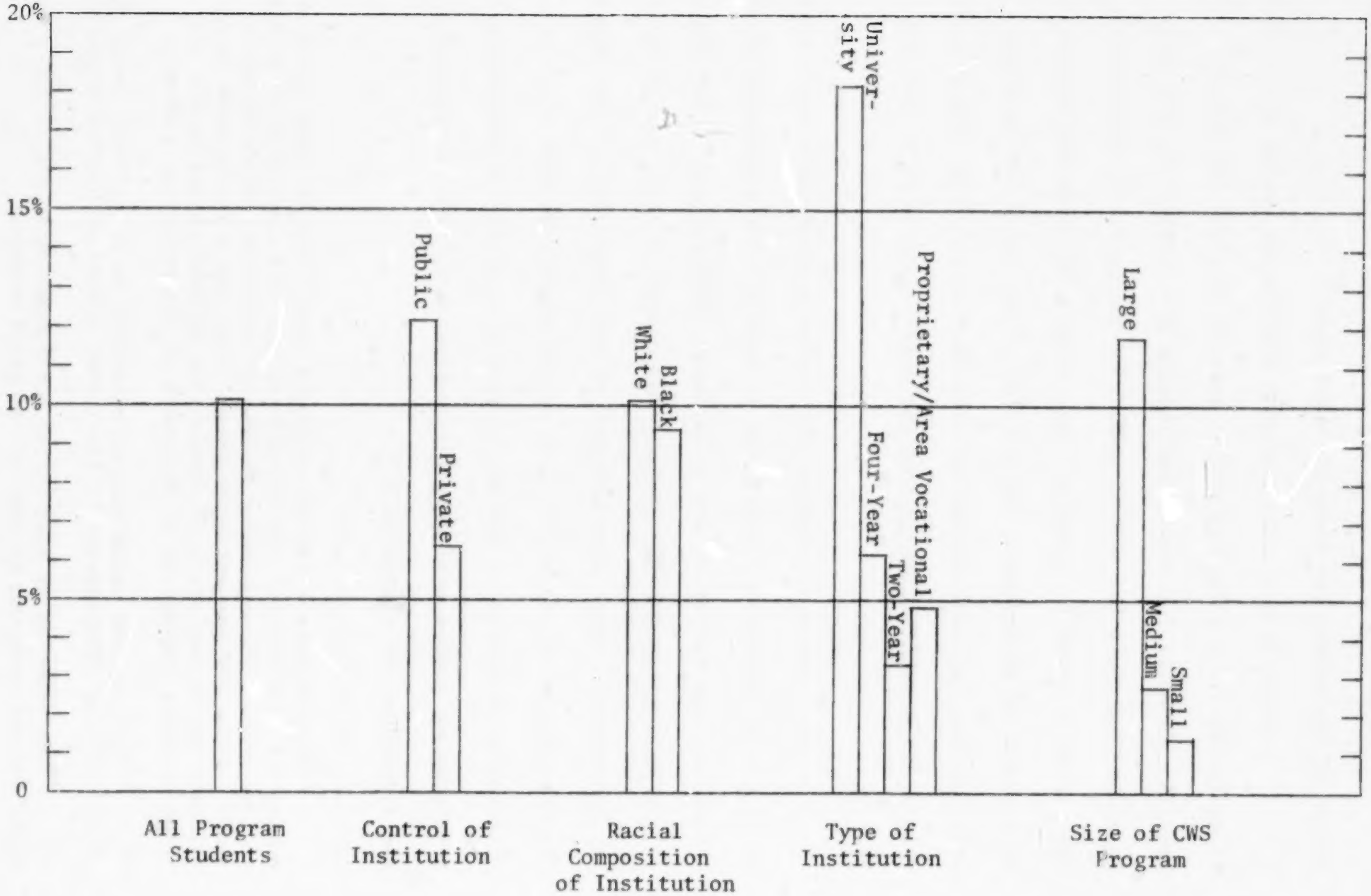

Figure 8.2

PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN PROGRAM UNIVERSE REPRESENTED BY PANEL MEMBERS notion of representation tends to break down.[12]

Irrespective of institutional affiliation, panel participation is equivalent to a voluntary social service function for the aid officer himself. Expenses for travel and lodging are reimbursed, but there is no honorarium above the salary payment by the employing institution for the period of absense. However, the aid officers view the invitation as a symbol of professional recognition. They value the experience not only for this personal reward but also for the knowledge gleaned about program management techniques and the preparation of forms for the Division.

For a few participants, the learning opportunity would appear to have been the primary reason for selection. The competence of these invididuals was never allowed to surface. When engaged in informal conversation, concern for the adequacy and status of their own applications was expressed.[13] They were hesitant to speak out when in the company of the more assertive and experienced participants. On rare occasions, a question might be raised about a criterion or directive pertaining to a program not operational at their institutions,[14] but contribution to the discussion was virtually nil.

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[12] Representation and the regional review process came under attack during the site visits. It was pointed out that constriction within the regions could well jeopardize an equitable national distribution of aid funds. Under the present arrangement, each region would tend to concentrate on its own state of deprivation without regard to the problems in other regions or to the needs of the nation as a whole.

[13] Such concern could only be expressed on an informal level since no aid officer participates in the formal review of his own application.

[14] The practice of restricting participation to one or two programs was not condoned by most of the panel members.

The absence of direct involvement with any one or all three programs was a hindrance to any type of panel participant. At times a regional staff member not well versed in program policies was called upon to share the responsibilities being assumed by OE. These individuals, too, were overwhelmed when confronted by a more knowledgeable and forceful financial aid representative. For cases reviewed in either of these panel settings, each recommendation hinged on a one-sided decision without benefit of full group discussion.

The selection of participants is completed fairly early in planning for the panel meetings so that the Senior Program Officer will be free to turn attention to other pressing matters. In getting ready for the FY'72 reviews, it seemed that these pressures never eased, but mounted. At the last minute, long-promised computer printouts summarizing program activity were simply not available.[15] This management tool had been designed to facilitate the identification of potential problem cases. The absence was circumvented by assigning the responsibility for prior review to the Senior Program Officer. Based upon his knowledge of the schools, he was asked to sort the applications into three classes of difficulty so that the ones he viewed as major problems would be assured a panel hearing. It was not intended that any application would be denied a full review, but the time constraints were considered formidable.[16]

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[15] Distribution had been planned for December 2nd in Washington, but delivery was not consummated until the eve of the panel meeting when a DSFA official reported for duty and personally handed them to the Senior Program Officer. These summaries were not as useful for all the panelists as it had been hoped. In the haste, errors had slipped through and the few errors cast doubt on the reliability of the whole pack.

Despite the increased last minute burden placed upon the Senior Program Officers, preparations for the panel meeting were not interrupted. With one exception,[17] each region followed the basic plan which had been agreed upon at the Washington meetings. First of all, orientation materials were carefully assembled to facilitate explaining the interpretation of page 1-1 and the utilization of the information in the decision-making process. Then, the participants were divided into subgroups consisting of a designated leader, usually a DSFA or regional staff member and two or three aid officers.[18] The representatives from the DHEW Task Force were

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[16] The observers recorded the time required to review approximately 300 applications; the findings:

Case Type	Average time (minutes)
Routine - no problem	10
Minor problem	23
Major problem	60

[17] One region elected to have multiple independent reviews of each case in preference to group participation. There were too many exceptions noted to permit including them in the present discussion. However, the summary comments of the observer may be of interest. There was continuous conversation among the reviewers to clarify problems; progress was slow; many conflicting recommendations were left for the Senior Program Officer to resolve. Washington officials looked askance at the practice and were hopeful that they would be able to initiate action that would result in regional uniformity.

[18] The arrangements in one region are particularly noteworthy. The subpanels were virtually leaderless. Participants were periodically rotated, which diminished the opportunity to exercise influence. OE personnel served as resource persons, but shunned leadership roles. Only one out of three panel members was without prior experience. The one or two strangers in the group were rapidly integrated. Exchange was unrestrained and a team spirit prevailed.

not assigned to subgroups, but would be permitted to circulate freely among them. Finally, the confounding sequence of delays had been overcome. All was in readiness when the panelists arrived for orientation.

Except for the personalities involved, the content of orientation was basically the same. Words of welcome were followed by an expression of appreciation for the assistance of the panel members in achieving a just distribution of aid funds. The philosophy of page 1-1 was presented with carefully calculated phrases--at times, in almost apologetic tones. The panelists were encouraged to examine need as presented on page 1-1, in preference to perpetuating past underestimates of support among the low-income students. Of course, if there was no evidence in the Fiscal-Operations Reports to show that these expectations were reasonable, the distributions could be adjusted to reflect a more typical pattern of utilization. No school was to be penalized for suspected incompetence in managing the programs. The matter was to be called to the attention of the Senior Program Officer so that consultation with the financial aid officer could be arranged.[19] The potential benefit of page 1-1 to the institution was stressed. With outstanding need of the student body exposed, panelists were told that there was now a real opportunity to correct longstanding inequities. Few challenged the flaws in the assumptions; by this time there was an aura of resignation.[20]

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[19] The identity of most of these schools was already known to the Senior Program Officer. From the knowledge they have accumulated during their day-to-day review of operations at the local level, there are few trouble spots that have escaped notice. They view their responsibility for working with these schools as vital, and the one activity of greatest value to the programs. However, the extent of their fieldwork is dictated by the largesse of the regional travel budget. As a result, it is an uneven practice. The Senior Program Officers are regional, not division personnel, and policies governing their behavior are set at this level. The legislation and subsequent Congressional appropriations allow for administrative expenses at participating institutions, but they do not include provisions for (mandatory) on site monitoring of the programs by the staff members accountable for carrying out the intent of the legislation.

The next phase of the orientation session was spent reviewing the application form. Here discussion centered on the difficulty of imposing tighter controls on NDSL delinquency rates during a period of relatively severe recession; on the relationship of institutional costs and the student budget, and on the justification for manipulating figures in the income grids for EOG and CWS. Once page 1-1 had been passed and the utilization of the fact sheet[21] and computer summary explained, the proceedings moved along at an accelerated pace as the more familiar program pages were reviewed.

Throughout the discussion, evidence and justification were the imperatives. Before any action could be taken, the reason would have to be stated. Each institution would have to be told why its request was being reduced. THINK REASON were the departing words. The session had been long, and to an extent arduous; but by this time, there was a sense of urgency to get on with the real business of the meeting.

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[20] Capitulation was not complete. There was talk about plans to collaborate in drafting a forceful response to the proposed allocation rule change to appear in the Federal Register.

[21] A summary sheet of application and Fiscal-Operations Report information was designed by one Senior Program Officer and the model was adopted by most of the others. In some regions, dollar amounts were converted into an estimated number of students to facilitate comparing data from different sources. These sheets were referred to continuously, with some panelists suggesting that the historical content be expanded.

The group dispersed to their designated subpanel locations. The first order of business was assigning responsibility for supportive tasks not delegated by the Senior Program Officer. Someone would be needed for checking requests with computer parameters, for calculating adjustments,[22] and for completing the recommendation form. Next, a work plan had to be outlined; and finally, a look at the first application. The opportunity to expose problem areas during the orientation session did little to anticipate the effort that would be expended as the first case was reviewed and different philosophies and interpretations had to find accommodation around the same table. Throughout the meetings, there was a sense that the need for this intimate group to maintain equanimity and a professional countenance quelled overt expressions of hostility or conflict. Instead, tension was relieved and compromise effected by engaging in light banter and occasional laughter.

Before moving ahead, two potential sources of overt influence can be dismissed. The observers from the research team were graciously received by all participants in the process. The presence of a visitor did not appear to be a disturbing factor, nor did it seem to inhibit the free exchange among the members of any subpanel. As for the representatives from DHEW, there was some scepticism--at times edging on hostility--with regard to their presence. However, with one known exception, they elected to remain on the periphery abstaining from involvement. If they contributed at all, it was to encourage forgetting the past and concentrating on current need. In the main, they were impressed with the precedence accorded page 1-1 and with the factual approach utilized in assessing each application. They walked away feeling reassured that their battle for the low-income student had been won.

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[22] In one region, calculators were not available. Corrections were noted on the recommendation form so that the regional staff could complete the computations after the meeting. With skilled operators often lacking, this was an effective way to safeguard the accuracy of the results.

In setting up for the subpanels, the Senior Program Officer was rarely able to avoid assigning himself the role of a participant, but in the opinion of the observers, his freedom to circulate would have been an advantageous arrangement in all regions. Involvement curtailed accessibility: each time there was a need for the insights of the Senior Program Officer, two subpanels were interrupted--with some lapses extensive. On most occasions, such personal insight was essential to confirm the claims made in the application and to prevent a sizable reduction.

As for the panel members themselves, they were well disciplined; conscious of the magnitude of their task; intent upon the point at issue, losing little time to digressions. While each endeavored to be objective, there were some fairly consistent practices detected which suggest the possibility of introducing bias into the decision-making process.

The panel members had been told to assume that there would be 100% funding in FY'72, but they were all acutely aware that appropriations are never adequate to cope with demand. From outward appearances, the members were willing to engage in the fantasy, but the pretense could not long endure nor could it restrain a competitive spirit. While the student is the ultimate recipient of program funds, the school--and primarily the financial aid officer--is at the interface between the individual and the government. The number of students and their relative states of need may provide the basis for the arguments presented in the application, but the real contestants for funds are the aid officers.[23]

Any application which presented an escalation in numbers--be it enrollment or retention--was subject to being scaled downward, irrespective of documentation. Each aid officer could envision the inverse relationship between larger numbers and smaller shares--of which his would be one. There was nothing but contempt among panelists for the aid officer who prepared an application approaching distortion. If the guidelines had permitted, reductions of such requests would have been drastic. However, the panelists did not object to the incorporation of marginal padding to cushion for the normal paring down. Building in this type of protection was interpreted as sound program management. To a degree, the distribution of managerial skill determines which schools receive, which are denied.

It was pointed out earlier that for the most part, the panelists represented institutions with large financial aid programs. Such a measured bias might enhance the chances of institutions with similar characteristics having their applications almost automatically approved. But this did not appear to be the case. In fact, there was a tendency to be protective of the small institutions. Repeatedly, even though arguments in the application did not adequately substantiate the stated need, there was reluctance to reduce requests by small amounts. One or two students and a few hundred dollars--which could account for ten or fifteen percent of the request--were allowed to stand, while the request from a large program school presenting a similar problem and involving the same relative amounts was reduced with little hesitancy. This practice was viewed as efficient; conserving a large block of funds by a single hatchet act was seen as preferable to halting the shrinkage of the program resources by adjusting numerous small excesses. To a limited extent, the validity of this observation can be explored when adjustments are presented in the next chapter. Whatever the findings, however, there is no way to discover how many times these small reductions would have been considered justified, or the amount of the saving which would have been realized had such reductions been made.

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[23] A few paraphrases show the personal identification of the financial aid officer with the programs. "He" builds "his" programs. "He" doesn't know how to manage "his" programs. Why penalize "him" because he doesn't know how to fill out the form. Who are we to tamper with "his" programs. Don't give "him" much.

The absence of this information points up a major weakness in the review process. There is no record of the rationale for a decision or for the alternatives which may have been weighed before a few checkmarks and figures are entered on the recommendation form. The failure of this form to function as a communications medium was apparent in the event of a subsequent review. Many times, the second panel had to consult the original members to learn how the particular decision had been reached. As it turned out, some recommendations were contingent upon information obtained in a telephone conversation with the local aid officer, but the additional input did not merit so much as a marginal note on the application or working copy of the recommendation form.

The value of personal knowledge in facilitating interpretation of an application was brought out earlier in regard to the insights of the

Senior Program Officer. The use of the telephone has come into play as another means for obtaining clarification of a request. A third source of additional information became apparent before the meetings adjourned; the panelists themselves were available to provide "instant" defense for their requests. It was the impression of the observers that the panelists who were called upon for such clarification were generally successful in preserving the total amount of the request; and if not total, they were able to reach an equitable compromise that would not impair program operations.

Even though not all schools benefiting from such first-hand information could be identified, the institutions of the panelists could be separated from the rest. The contrast in outcomes between those present and those absent are presented in Table 8.1. For all three programs, not only is the relative number of reductions less among panel member schools, but also the [illegible] percent of the reductions is less--and for CWS, by a considerable amount.

If the fairness of a hearing is in any way associated with the privilege of a personal appearance, the frustrations expressed by an excluded aid officer should be heard. He has been endeavoring to develop a dynamic, well-integrated program from the frail beginnings inherited from his predecessors so that he can cope with the magnitude of actual need. But neither the figures entered on the application nor the carefully phrased explanatory statements have the desired impact. The urgency of his

TABLE 8.1

PERCENT OF REQUESTS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION FOR PANEL SCHOOLS AND FOR ALL OTHER APPLICANT INSTITUTIONS BY TYPE OF FEDERAL AID PROGRAM

Program	Reduced Percent		Mean Percent of Reduction (based on reduced cases)	
	Panel Schools	All Other Institutions	Panel Schools	All Other Institutions
EOG-IY	10.5%(95)	22.5%(2105)	28.5%	29.9%
EOG-RY	23.9 (92)	28.7 (1939)	17.5	21.9
NDSL-FCC	29.8 (94)	37.8 (2075)	17.2	25.7
CWS	21.9 (96)	26.4 (2393)	17.9	30.3

plea has never been heeded. According to him, he tells "..the straight of it" the first time around and is of the opinion that an appeal is an exercise in futility because there is nothing left to say. He is convinced, however, that if he were permitted to present his case verbally, his requests would not be denied.

This complaint exposes two areas that were commented upon independently by each observer. The statements incorporated in the application may lack force simply because they are never read. Rarely did the documentation enter the discussion. Attention was always directed to page 1, page 1-1, and the program pages; but looking below the last line of figures or turning to page 5 in search of an explanatory remark never became part of the established routine. The instructions accompanying the application were quite explicit in specifying the circumstances which required supporting statements; most institutions complied. The omission of supporting testimony was considered a major shortcoming in the decision-making process. Furthermore, the repercussions cannot be calculated, but it was far too easy for the panelists to derive comfort from knowing that an adjustment viewed as unwarranted could always be appealed. The other area is the initial application. The panelists considered most of these as overly ambitious and appeared to agree that new programs should have modest beginnings to permit demonstrating ability to utilize funds prudently. It was openly admitted by the program officials that once the size of a program is sanctioned by the panel, it tends to become a fixed ceiling and is a difficult barrier to surmount in subsequent years, but few went by unscathed. The invidious threat of increasing numbers was accentuated as each new program was reviewed.

There was another practice noted by the observers with potential to produce undesirable consequences of considerable proportions. The additive principle was often invoked to justify declaring that any one or each of the average program awards was excessive. In other words, the sum of the average awards for NDSL, EOG, and CWS was compared with college cost or student budget without regard to the number of times each student may have been counted. The panelists were well aware that many students in each category receive support under only one program, but no one interceded to point out the fallacy and halt the practice. Another figure subject to abuse on occasion was the projected CWS average earnings. These would be declared too high without looking at the component parts.

This total figure often included summer earnings, but some panelists found it difficult to think beyond a nine-month year in calculating a standard.

Cognizant of the fact that each group would not necessarily make the same recommendation for a particular school, some Senior Program Officers had made plans to rotate files among the subpanels. Disagreements would then be resolved in conference or presented to the group as a whole. Time pressures, however, minimized the extent of these second reviews. If no adjustment had been made originally, the case was simply set aside. Few decisions were challenged; no proposed changes were of great consequence. When differences were aired in a joint session, the experience was rewarding for everyone involved as varying interpretations of the same information were exposed. However, if the group consisted of more than ten or fifteen members, interest was difficult to stimulate among those not participating in the decision. Rational debate was lost to surrounding cacophony.

As in most human encounter, there were instances of struggles for dominance, misdirected animosity, and usurpation of power. The weight of the hand leveled by OE officials vacillated. In some cases, the role was limited to that of court recorder; in others, it was equivalent to that of essential witness; in still others, to that of astute examiner; and in a few others, to that of sole adjudicator. On the part of the panelists, none could drop the frame of reference which is almost integral to his nature. Practice and outcome at the panelist's own institution often served as convenient yardsticks upon which comparisons were based. But throughout the proceedings, there was a concerted effort to rise above prejudice and maintain objectivity in the exercise of justice. For underneath it all, each one knew that the assessment amounted to nothing more than questioning the veracity of the claims being made by another man. Upon departure, one aid officer quite aptly summarized this subliminal awareness--"Who are we to take the authority from the institution; or, to judge their considered opinion."

C. Regional and National Perspectives on Program Administration

The interdependence of federal, regional, and institutional officials is the main theme underlying the panel review process. Each group is aware that it could not function effectively without the cooperation and assistance of the others--or without a two way system of communications. Yet, each recognizes that its voice seldom carries across the bridge to the Capitol, and that the power to control the structure and funding of the tripartite aid programs rests with the executive and legislative branches of the government. As a consequence, the plans and actions of the three groups accountable for implementing the programs tend to have a temporary quality.

It is the regional office which constitutes the link between the national level at which program philosophies and guidelines are promulgated and the institutional level at which monies are channeled to students. At this linkage point stands the Senior Program Officer, accountable to the Field Services Division of the Department of Health and Welfare.[24] With primary attachment to the region, each Senior

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[24] The Division of Student Financial Aid has no representatives in the regional offices; actually, the Senior Program Officer serves as a consultant to Division of Student Financial Aid in Washington.

Program Officer must look to the Region Director of Higher Education and the Region Commissioner for support and endorsement of program objectives. The Senior Program Officers speak as one when specifying the obstacles which impede achieving maximum effectiveness in program administration; namely, personnel and travel allowance. These two interrelated resources are essential for maintaining and analyzing records and for conducting on site program reviews.

The importance of program monitoring was alluded to earlier, but it should be stressed that the Senior Program Officers are of the firm opinion that visitations are their prime responsibility. Even though both federal and regional officials tend to agree that the greatest share of the appropriated aid goes to a few schools with large, well administered programs, they hesitate to assume that any funds from the public trust are so well managed that a program review is unnecessary. Most Senior Program Officers spoke of striving toward a review visit every two years. In addition to the on-going programs, the number of participants grows from year to year, and each entrant seeks guidance in setting up program operations. The Senior Program Officers report that their service role is most productive during these initial visits when their skills can be channelled toward the prevention of problems rather than toward correction, for in the long run, the latter consumes a disproportionate amount of time and energy.

But at this stage in the development of the programs, problems cannot be avoided. Some local administrators call for help, others wait until difficulties are detected on reporting forms. The most troublesome areas are NDSL collections, the distribution of institutional and

DSFA funds among income groups, and application of need analysis formulae. The Senior Program Officers approach each review as an opportunity to teach; not as one to take punitive action. In light of this positive attitude, the school is eager to cooperate as it generally profits from the visit by improving program management and enhancing its competitive stance in the funding arena.

The emphasis on prevention is not restricted to the regions; it is duplicated in the Washington offices. The federal program administrators view their role as mainly supportive of the regional staffs, and they endeavor to minimize problems through such activities as promulgating guidelines, processing records, making public appearances, circulating communications to school officials, and maintaining the flow of funds. Despite the effort to be precise, definitions are never absolute. Philosophical issues and guidelines are under continuous discussion as ambiguities become apparent. With access to post-secondary education virtually assured now, the two concerns currently being aired are the independent student and the student budget. Questions are being raised about parental income and the status of the returning veteran in determining program eligibility; others center around the offspring of divorced parents; still others focus on age. But with funds so limited, the student budget seems to be a more urgent matter. The position gaining favor would tend to restrict the use of federal funds to the payment of basic college costs for all program participants before providing any student with a discretionary allowance. The issue is far from being settled, however. What of medical expenses? The equitable distribution of the dollar between a resident and a commuter student? The varying value of the dollar both intra- and inter-state? Debate of these complex topics never ceases, but the focus can be abruptly altered by Presidential or Legislative mandate as it was during the early months of 1973 when the Higher Education Bill was being polished.

The Basic Opportunity Grant provision in the Bill has gained wide acceptance among the program administrators even though questions are raised about the need for the change. It was pointed out that the same objective could be achieved under the EOG program if it were given the opportunity to mature in its present form and were more adequately funded. However, the appropriation for the EOG program has never evidenced a hearty endorsement of the grant concept.

It can be said without hesitation that the CWS program is viewed as more than a source of aid by federal and regional officials. It affords a means of introducing the low-income student to both the dignity and discipline of work while at the same time allowing him to "pay as he goes" instead of accumulating debt. The flexibility of the CWS program is also stressed. Many students from families of modest means can earn the few dollars needed to cover the final installment on tuition charges by working between terms or on weekends. And too, CWS eligibility can be carried into graduate school, thereby facilitating the planning of the low-income student and lending continuity to employment.

As for NDSL, federal and regional officials are not too worried about the limited amount of student indebtedness that can be accumulated through participation in this program. Their concern centers rather about the lack of control over other loan funds which are currently adding substantially to the debt carried by many of the program students. In the eyes of these administrators, one palliative that is in practice should be abolished: it is generally conceded that any purpose which may have been served by allowing certain types of students to be excused from repayment of their obligations has long since been fulfilled. Presently, the most expeditious means for alleviating the magnitude of debt appears to be through the application of more thorough need analysis techniques and improved financial counselling by the local aid administrator. But again, follow-up on these procedures would require intensive program reviews which demand personnel and travel allowances in the ten DHEW regions.

With funds the first imperative of program operations, Washington officials endeavor to maintain a constant vigil on the utilization of allocations so that untapped credit balances can be redistributed before the end of the fiscal year, at which time leftover funds are automatically reclaimed by the Treasury. In fiscal year '72 the technique for monitoring the flow of funds was also changed. One of the innovations that set this particular fiscal year apart was the long awaited once yearly funding of the CWS program which, in turn, permitted dispensing with the December Report. Compilation of this summary of program activities for the first half of the fiscal year may not have been a welcomed task for the aid officer, but it did serve a useful purpose in the conservation of funds.[25] The function served by the December Report has been preserved by sending letters to the institutions requesting a projection of year end balances so that the necessary Congressional approval can be obtained to circulate deobligated amounts to schools with a shortage of funds. This is a period of delicate timing. Each set of actors must respond promptly; no lag can be tolerated if EOG funds are to be available for spring term tuition and CWS funds for the first summer payroll.

The role of the institutional administrator in achieving program objectives is acknowledged at every turn, but, the level of his managerial skill and the multi-faceted nature of his responsibilities elicit frequent concern from federal and regional officials. While the program officials would be inclined to establish minimum staffing requirements for program eligibility, they are reluctant to define qualifications for an aid officer. They accomplish this indirectly, however, by taking part in State and National professional association training sessions which promote the development of uniform standards and practice among aid officers. Ironic though it may seem, a major obstacle deterring the thrust toward a professional status is the relatively low position of the aid administrator in the stratification system of institutions of higher learning. Gaining an audience with the President of the college, therefore, in order to bring the importance of financial aid into focus, is part and parcel of every program review.

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[25] These December balances were also the source of funds for earnings of students from the outlying territories who are guaranteed employment in the legislation. Administration of this aspect of the CWS program is regarded as disproportionate to any benefit gained. It was suggested that a reexamination of the provision is in order since conditions have altered appreciably since the Bill was enacted. American Samoa has a community college now, and the privilege of assured placement is being challenged.

The volume of workload confronting the Senior Program Officer does not discourage thought of expanded responsibility. Some officials have criticized the current two-step process through which fiscal-operations reports and audit results go first to Washington and only next are relayed to the regions. Since local program management is reflected in these reports and audits, the detection of problems and implementation of corrective action is delayed. It has been suggested that complete regionalization be given serious consideration so that records can be reviewed by those most familiar with the school and in a position to contact the aid officer directly. However, it was again emphasized that such an ideal cannot be achieved without first enlarging the regional staff. In this regard, one Senior Program Officer stressed the need for a program review specialist--even if only on a part-time basis--to facilitate program monitoring and free time for more intensive case reviews.

The line defining the separation between nation and region is not clear cut and a move toward greater regionalization would not necessarily produce an ideal outcome. Under the current arrangement, Washington officials may lament the fact that they have so little contact with aid officers and virtually none with student recipients. At the same time, the present system permits regional differences to be balanced by a truly national perspective. Perhaps it is this balance which imparts real meaning to program administration.

CHAPTER NINE

THE VALUE OF THE DOLLAR

Abstract

Here, the outcomes of the panel review are tested against the more factual information obtained from Division of Student Financial Aid applications. The response of the institutions to the panel recommendations is traced through the appeals process before the actual dollar allocations are disclosed. For this purpose, the impact of two different formulae on the ultimate distribution of the funds appropriated by Congress is presented.

CHAPTER NINE

THE VALUE OF THE DOLLAR

A. Panel Recommendations

The previous chapter noted that there were many common practices observed from one regional panel to another. Still, the existence of marked differences in regional constituencies cannot be denied. The East has a preponderance of private universities; the South practically all of the predominantly Black schools; the Great Lakes the large land grant systems, and the West many small denominational institutions. Each section has several of the burgeoning two-year colleges and recently approved proprietary schools. In addition, there are regional variations in institutional costs and in characteristics of the student body. Furthermore, the applications submitted by approximately 2700 of these unique institutional types were assessed by 150 individuals--each with his own unique attributes. Under these circumstances, it would be strange indeed to discover that the recommendations from every region were identical. Exposing the gross differences is the first task of the analysis.

A summary of the panel recommendations of institutional requests appears in Table 9.1 and it is clear that the outcomes are certainly not the same: differences appear across both programs and regions. In general, the percent of requests reduced fluctuates more widely than the mean amount of the reduction. Comparing different outcomes,

TABLE 9.1

PERCENT OF REQUESTS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION BY PROGRAM AND FEDERAL REGION

Percent of Requests Reduced	Federal Region										Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	
CWS	31%	37%	19%	22%	13%	32%	44%	50%	15%	26%	26%
(n)	(223)	(227)	(265)	(429)	(427)	(233)	(179)	(99)	(234)	(91)	(2407)
NDSL	51	40	31	34	16	33	67	46	24	53	36
(n)	(187)	(212)	(247)	(352)	(351)	(180)	(159)	(87)	(208)	(76)	(2059)
EOG-IY	30	33	13	18	14	28	20	33	8	13	20
(n)	(189)	(198)	(238)	(388)	(366)	(183)	(170)	(81)	(199)	(82)	(2094)
EOG-RY	29	38	33	26	15	24	34	30	15	38	28
(n)	(184)	(190)	(225)	(355)	(349)	(176)	(164)	(80)	(189)	(74)	(1986)
Mean Percent of Reduction (based on reduced cases)											
CWS	25%	26%	26%	30%	33%	26%	30%	31%	24%	24%	28%
NDSL	21	32	18	21	22	28	20	31	29	19	23
EOG-IY	26	24	28	26	24	26	36	20	24	21	26
EOG-RY	20	20	22	21	18	22	20	22	20	22	21

approximately one out of every four CWS programs was scaled downward; and on the average, the reductions in CWS were the largest in each region. The NDSL applications were most frequently reduced; this may reflect actions to correct for excessive delinquency. However, the average size of the NDSL reduction is no greater than for the other programs, and in a few regions, it is the lowest figure. Of the two EOG programs, the Initial Year requests were less often viewed as unbalanced, but when they were, reductions were larger than for Renewal Year requests in almost every region.

Comparing the incidence of reductions from one region to another indicates that the frequency of such reductions is consistently low for all four programs in Regions V and IX, but tends to be fairly high in Regions VII and VIII. Not only are relatively more requests likely to be reduced in Regions VII and VIII but the size of the reductions also tends to be high in these two regions.

Perhaps the variations in outcomes presented in Table 9.1 result from lack of uniform application of Division of Student Financial Aid guidelines in evaluating requests. These guidelines define the grounds for legitmately adjusting a request. They state, for example, that an active off-campus CWS program and full utilization of CWS funds are evidence of acceptable program operations, but that a high NDSL delinquency rate or a request for EOG-IY funds for more than 15% of the incoming freshman class should be carefully evaluated.

Table 9.2 presents clear evidence that DSFA guidelines are not uniformly applied. Take CWS for example. Requests from schools not

TABLE 9.2

PERCENT OF REQUESTS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION FOR SELECTED PROGRAM CRITERIA

Program Criterion	Percent Reduced	Mean Percent of Reduction (based on reduced cases)
CWS Off-Campus Students		
None	25.2% (460)	24.4%
1-19	17.7 (733)	27.6
20-59	26.1 (637)	29.3
60 or more	35.0 (577)	28.6
CWS Under-utilization		
Less than 10%	24.6% (703)	24.8%
10-24%	25.2 (540)	22.5
25% or more	21.8 (628)	25.7
NDSL Delinquency		
10% or less	24.4% (915)	20.7%
11-25%	41.0 (575)	17.2
over 25%	62.2 (254)	22.1
EOG-IY Percent of Freshmen		
7% or less	8.3% (652)	21.9%
8-15%	16.7 (874)	22.8
16-29%	29.5 (342)	25.3
30% or more	50.2 (217)	31.8

providing off-campus employment have not been the most frequently reduced, nor have the reductions been larger than for the groups of schools with active programs--whether modest or massive. Similarly, underutilization of CWS funds is not accompanied by an increase in the frequency or size of reductions, and while the number of cases reduced rises with increases in NDSL delinquency rate, the amount of the reduction fails to follow this pattern. Only the last indicator lends support to the assumption that following DSFA guidelines will produce a consistent result: both the incidence and the size of reductions increase with a rise in the proportion of freshmen for whom EOG-IY support has been requested.

This appears to be one indicator worthwhile pursuing at the regional level in order to determine whether DSFA guidelines are followed across regions. For this purpose, the measure has been separated into two categories to assure an adequate representation for the regions serving a small number of schools. As Table 9.3 reveals, the trend is the same in every region: applications seeking support for more than 15% of the freshmen have most frequently been reduced, and by larger amounts. These outcomes for EOG-IY are the first sign of uniform treatment.

The major point of these last two tables seems to be that operating within the acceptable limits of the guidelines is not automatic protection against reductions. Schools which comply may have a slightly lower incidence of reductions, but the average size of the reduction is not smaller than for the "deviant" institution. Taking these guidelines into account has provided little insight into the decision-making process.

TABLE 9.3

PERCENT OF REQUESTS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION BY PERCENT OF FRESHMEN FOR EOG-IY AWARDS AND FEDERAL REGION

Federal Region	Percent of Requests Reduced		Mean Percent of Reduction	
	Percent of Freshmen		Percent of Freshmen	
	1-15%	over 15%	1-15%	over 15%
I	25.2% (147)	56.8% (44)	23.7%	33.0%
II	29.6 (142)	52.7 (55)	23.9	37.1
III	10.1 (178)	29.0 (62)	28.9	36.7
IV	7.9 (240)	42.0 (119)	19.5	32.2
V	11.2 (249)	23.7 (93)	23.0	26.7
VI	15.1 (119)	53.3 (60)	26.6	31.3
VII	5.9 (118)	60.5 (43)	22.9	41.9
VIII	27.7 (65)	63.2 (19)	20.2	34.0
IX	5.1 (138)	21.8 (46)	21.6	30.4
X	8.8 (57)	37.5 (16)	18.4	31.7
Total	13.7 (1453)	41.3 (557)	23.4	33.7

TABLE 9.4

RATIO OF MEAN AMOUNT OF REDUCED REQUEST TO MEAN AMOUNT OF APPROVED REQUEST BY PROGRAM AND FEDERAL REGION

Federal Region	CWS Request	NDSL FCC Request	EOG-IY Request	EOG-RY Request
The Nation	2.08	1.91	2.79	1.75
I	3.56	3.29	2.33	1.50
II	4.97	3.05	8.08	1.30
III	2.07	2.94	2.98	1.98
IV	1.65	1.94	3.27	2.42
V	1.25	1.48	1.99	2.08
VI	1.39	1.89	1.67	2.47
VII	2.24	2.44	2.54	2.35
VIII	1.74	1.47	1.54	0.89
IX	2.30	2.48	3.58	1.43
X	2.34	2.92	2.16	1.83

One thing does stand out from the EOG-IY profile, however: greater demand is answered with larger and more frequent reductions. This finding coupled with the reports of the panel observers (presented in Chapter Eight), suggests that the dollar amount of the program request may explain the outcome of the funding decision.

Table 9.4 confirms the importance of this amount and shows that the general pattern is similar in every region. The ratios represent the mean amount of the requests which were reduced divided by the mean amount of the requests which were approved. The results show that schools which were reduced by the panel were asking for more money than their counterparts whose applications were approved. In fact, for each dollar requested in the approved application, the one that was reduced has asked for two or three. Except for the EOG-RY ratio in Region VIII, they are all well above one.[1] When scanning either down or across the page the basic relationship does not change. While the magnitude of the ratios may not show signs of stability, if the ranks within regions are compared, it turns out that neither EOG-IY nor NDSL ever occupies the lowest rank.

Another way of illuminating the relationships between the size of the request and the number or size of the reductions is presented in Table 9.5. Here the institutions have been divided into seven categories, based on the dollar amount of the funds requested. For

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[1] Some of the largest ratios reflect the amounts requested for program support by the central administrative offices of multiple campus systems. It was decided to permit these applications to remain intact since the panel is required to assess the application as presented and does not have the option of dividing it into smaller units.

TABLE 9.5

PERCENT OF REQUESTS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION BY PROGRAM AND SIZE OF REQUEST

Program	(Low)			Request Size Classification			(High)
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Percent of Requests Reduced							
CWS	11.8%	16.2%	21.5%	24.6%	30.5%	33.4%	41.6%
NDSL	12.4	21.3	32.2	37.0	43.7	45.0	57.0
EOG-IY	3.6	11.8	11.7	17.9	22.4	32.8	41.5
EOG-RY	7.8	26.3	25.1	26.6	30.4	29.1	48.7
Mean Percent of Reduction							
CWS	23.3%	28.6%	28.9%	30.4%	26.6%	29.6%	25.8%
NDSL	24.0	23.1	26.9	25.6	21.2	23.6	20.7
EOG-IY	24.6	23.8	28.5	26.9	24.1	24.9	27.7
EOG-RY	24.8	24.4	20.9	22.5	18.8	18.9	19.5

Category Limits (in 1000's of Dollars)

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
CWS	Under $15	$15-28	$29-45	$46-70	$71-117.5	$117.6-224	$225 or more
NDSL	Under $16	$16-30	$31-52.5	$52.6-92.5	$92.6-160	$161-349	$350 or more
EOG-IY	Under $12	$12-20	$21-30	$31-45	$46-70	$71-137.4	$137.5 or more
EOG-RY	Under $4.5	$4.5-10	$11-17.5	$17.6-30	$31-50	$51-89	$90 or more

each program, the relative number of adjusted requests rises as the size of the request increases. Surprisingly, however, the mean percent of the reduction does not change markedly from one category to another, and in fact runs a reverse course for EOG-RY. The measures in the last two tables seem to say that the sheer weight of the dollar is not solely responsible for panel outcomes.

Thus far it appears that the incidence and size of reductions vary from region to region, and from program to program. Adherence to DSFA guidelines is not necessarily rewarded by approval of the application, although the guidelines for the EOG-IY program are the most uniformly enforced across the nation. It was also pointed out that the frequency though not the size, of reductions varies directly with the dollar amount of the program request. This holds true for all programs. Since the evidence suggests that panel decisions are not based solely on adherence to DSFA guidelines or on the dollar amount of the request, the next step is to search for factors which might shed more light on the panel decision-making process.

The concentration on money matters has diverted attention from one vital element in the Federal Aid Programs--the students themselves, for the number of students is central in determining the Federal Aid requests. When the application is reviewed, an estimated number of student participants is derived from a percentage of the projected undergraduate enrollment. The recent history of these factors is routinely reviewed to note changes which may have a bearing on program requests. In FY'72 this was not the only enrollment information available; the income characteristics of the student body had been described on Page 1-1 as an adjunct to the proposed income distribution of program dollars.

Table 9.5 exposed the opposition encountered in each region when EOG-IY awards were to be extended to more than 15% of the freshman class. Table 11.6 indicates that 15% also seems to be a significant level in enrollment change. If enrollment goes up slightly, the number of requests reduced increases a little, but the size of the reduction does not change significantly. On the other hand, there is a sizable increase in the reduction when the enrollment forcast shows an increase of 15% or more, even though the number of reductions hardly changes. The second section of the table shows panel outcomes for schools with varying numbers of low-income students. Interestingly, the relative number of applications requiring reduction does not change much until reaching the group of schools with the highest percentage of low-income students. However, there is a fairly steady increase in the magnitude of the reduction as low-income enrollment increases. The average reduction is almost twice as high for schools with a low-income enrollment of 55% or more as for those institutions which enroll less than 15% from this income group.[2] In other words, schools enrolling large proportions of low-income students are penalized more frequently and the reductions are also more severe. This hardly seems congruent with program mandates which emphasize the

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[2] See Tables A.9.1 and A.9.2 for evidence that, with some exceptions, this same pattern obtains within regions.

TABLE 9.6

PERCENT OF APPLICATIONS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION BY ENROLLMENT CHARACTERISTICS

Enrollment Characteristics	Percent of Applications Reduced	Mean Percent Of Reduction
Enrollment Change		
No change or	43.90% (123)	14.94%
1-14%	51.52 (1,413)	13.67
15% or more	54.00 (750)	24.60
Low-Income[a] Enrollment		
Under 15%	50.82% (488)	15.59%
15-24%	53.62 (373)	17.81
25-34%	54.24 (295)	16.42
35-54%	50.51 (297)	20.43
55-100%	64.10 (234)	28.50

[a] Many program officials have disputed the validity and consequently the usefulness of the low-income enrollment information provided by aid officers. However, these data were incorporated in the design of page 1-1 specifically to facilitate the decision-making process. The evaluator must take the figures at face value and document their relationship to panel recommendations and funding outcomes.

importance of serving the low-income student.

The preceding tables have shown that the incidence and size of reductions increase with increases in both the dollar amount requested and total or low-income enrollment. Since dollars and students are the integral components of the aid equation, bringing these two items together might provide a clearer understanding of the relationships uncovered thus far. This is accomplished by deriving an average award.[3]

If the prime function of financial aid is taken into consideration it offers alternate ways of expressing an average award; one is the absolute dollar amount, the other is the percent of the basic costs represented by this dollar amount. Both of these indicators and their relation to the incidence and size of the reductions are presented in Table 9.7. It is clear that higher average dollar awards to students are met with stiffened panel resistance in the form of more frequent and larger reductions. The higher the average award, the more likely and the more drastic the reductions.[4] It is difficult to ignore the implications of this finding, namely, that the current pattern of panel decisions may well be inhibiting equal access to costly institutions for the disadvantaged student.

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[3] Data restrictions prevented obtaining average awards for each program separately. The average award figure used in the analysis represents the total aid recommended for all three programs divided by the number of students to be aided.

[4] Table A.9.3 in Appendix A indicates that this pattern holds across the nation. In every region, the incidence of reduction rises with increased average award. Similarly, the highest reduction is in almost every region associated with an average award of $1200 or more.

TABLE 9.7

PERCENT OF APPLICATIONS REDUCED
AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION
BY FINANCIAL AID MEASURES

Financial Aid Measure	Percent of Applications Reduced	Mean Percent of Reduction	(n)
Average Award			
Under $500	31.06%	16.26%	(425)
$500-799	46.66	13.42	(835)
$800-1199	59.65	17.16	(684)
$1200 or more	71.93	26.37	(342)
Average Award as % of Basic Cost			
Less than 30%	43.51%	15.38%	(570)
30-44%	54.02	15.26	(609)
45-69%	55.25	17.60	(657)
70% or more	54.86	25.90	(494)

An aid officer can opt to award larger sums to fewer students with high need or smaller amounts to more students from possibly less deprived financial backgrounds. The findings in the top half of Table 9.7 suggest that high average awards would be discouraged; aid administrators at high cost institutions who might attempt to increase their low-income enrollment would experience difficulty in accumulating enough funds to cover the need of these students.

It might be argued that the percent of basic costs of an education beyond high school provided by federal aid is of greater importance than the average award in the panel evaluation of an application. The lower half of Table 9.7 seems to say that the frequency of reduction does not depend upon this percent, but that the relative amount of adjustment made does. With the average award and percent of cost variables both showing a relationship to the percent of reduction, it might be instructive to view these factors together as shown in Table 9.8. The dollar is by far the more powerful factor in prompting a reduction. In the lowest award category, the rate of reduction varies from 14% to 35%, but with one step up in the award amount, the range of reduction begins with a minimum of 33% and climbs to 55%, while in the highest award class, no less than 60% of the requests have been reduced, regardless of whether the award defrays a small or large share of the costs. However, as a small or moderate award begins to offset a greater share of the costs, the rate of reduction actually decreases even though the mean percent of the reduction remains fairly stable in these two award classes. The amount of the reduction does show a regular pattern of

TABLE 9.8

PERCENT OF APPLICATIONS REDUCED
AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION
BY AVERAGE AWARD AND AWARD
AS PERCENT OF BASIC COST

Average Award	Award as Percent Of Basic Costs	Percent of Applications Reduced	Mean Percent of Reduction	(n)
Under $500	Less than 30%	34.04%	18.95%	(230)
	30-44%	34.65	11.49	(101)
	45-69%	26.56	13.25	(64)
	70% or more	14.29	13.25	(28)
$500-799	Less than 30%	47.08	13.49	(257)
	30-44%	54.88	14.51	(215)
	45-69%	45.56	11.99	(259)
	70% or more	33.33	13.20	(120)
$800 or more	Less than 30%	61.45	14.53	(83)
	30-44%	60.07	16.52	(293)
	45-69%	68.07	20.46	(332)
	70% or more	63.29	25.69	(316)

increase when the award mounts to $800 or more. For this group of schools, it appears that the panel is of the opinion that the high cost school which expects to offset less than 30% of the tuition charges with federal funds is already making effective use of other sources of support. These requests are reduced by only 14.5%, but with each increase in the percent of costs defrayed by an equally sizeable award, the amount of the reduction increases. In essence, these schools are being asked to ease the burden placed on government resources and to search for other means of meeting the cost of attendance.

In sum, it seems that the panels are more sensitive to the number of dollars a student gets than to the amount of basic educational costs the average award will cover. This strong reaction to dollars on the part of the panel would serve as a signal for aid officers to keep average awards low and to minimize the weight of the load carried by government funds. This, in turn, has implications for access of the disadvantaged student to a high cost institution.

Since the average award appears to be a dominant force in the panel decision-making process, it will now be introduced as a control factor in a re-examination of the three variables--percent EOG-IY freshmen, enrollment change, and low-income enrollment--previously shown to be associated with panel outcomes. Tables 9.9, 9.10, and 9.11 show that each of the three is still related to program reduction (both frequency and amount) when average award is held constant. With few exceptions, in every award category as EOG-IY coverage, total enrollment

TABLE 9.9

PERCENT OF APPLICATIONS REDUCED
AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION
BY PERCENT FRESHMEN FOR EOG-IY AWARDS
AND AVERAGE AWARD

Average Award	Percent Freshman EOG-IY	Percent of Applications Reduced	Mean Percent of Reduction	(n)
Under $500	1 - 15%	9.66%	25.04%	(238)
	16% or more	27.03	31.10	(37)
$500 - 799	1 - 15%	11.92%	23.49%	(579)
	16% or more	37.66	28.59	(154)
$800 - 1199	1 - 15%	14.15%	22.00%	(417)
	16% or more	39.27	33.32	(191)
$1200 or more	1 - 15%	30.94%	26.19%	(139)
	16% or more	55.07	36.55	(138)

TABLE 9.10

PERCENT OF APPLICATIONS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION BY AVERAGE AWARD AND ENROLLMENT CHANGE

Average Award	Enrollment Change	Percent of Applications Reduced	Mean Percent of Reduction	(n)
Under $500	No change or decrease	12.50%	26.00%	(24)
	Increase: 1-14%	33.90	11.64	(236)
	15% or more	28.77	23.24	(146)
$500-799	No change or decrease	36.36	10.10	(44)
	Increase: 1-14%	47.53	11.42	(547)
	15% or more	47.06	17.44	(238)
$800-1199	No change or decrease	54.55	17.17	(33)
	Increase: 1-14%	57.34	12.82	(436)
	15% or more	53.04	21.74	(184)
$1200 or more	No change or decrease	76.47	12.92	(17)
	Increase: 1-14%	70.41	19.17	(169)
	15% or more	73.57	34.50	(140)

TABLE 9.11

PERCENT OF APPLICATIONS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION BY AVERAGE AWARD AND PERCENT OF LOW-INCOME ENROLLMENT

Average Award	Percent Low-Income Enrollment	Percent of Applications Reduced	Mean Percent of Reduction	(n)
Under $500	Less than 15%	28.75%	14.26%	(80)
	15-34%	32.14	11.78	(112)
	35-100%	35.59	24.07	(118)
$500-799	Less than 15%	50.00	12.92	(158)
	15-34%	49.19	12.22	(246)
	35-100%	47.70	15.93	(174)
$800-1199	Less than 15%	52.44	13.27	(164)
	15-34%	61.67	17.21	(188)
	35-100%	67.48	28.37	(123)
$1200 or more	Less than 15%	68.57	20.62	(70)
	15-34%	73.00	26.00	(100)
	35-100%	78.89	31.80	(90)

and low-income enrollment increase, there is a rise in the percent of requests reduced as well as an increase in the mean amount of the reduction. If there is any other trend which emerges from scanning the three tables, it is that in the higher average award categories the relationship between these three variables and the average reduction tends to be slightly greater.

There is one more source of cost variability which has not been introduced as yet, namely institutional type. It is clear from Table 9.12 that no one type of school has monopolized the attention of the panel. All types have been subject to reductions with the frequency for the two year schools being somewhat less and for the proprietary and four-year institutions somewhat more than the other types of schools. Furthermore, in every case, schools not offering a bachelor's degree have received more sizeable reductions at each award level than the higher degree institutions. This is particulary so for the proprietary and vocational schools. For some, requests have been reduced by one-half--and even more. The actions taken in regard to these schools may reflect the poor preparation of the application pointed out in Chapter Eight.

From the data presented here, the average award appears to have been the guiding principle in the assessment of the application; and it was not the relative contribution to costs that counted, but the absolute value of the award. Anyone entertaining the idea of awarding upward of $1200 in Federal funds to each student received a warning to cease and desist. These ten panels working in isolation seemed to be

TABLE 9.12

PERCENT OF APPLICATIONS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION BY AVERAGE AWARD AND TYPE OF INSTITUTION

Average Award	Type of Institution	Percent of Applications Reduced	Mean Percent of Reduction	(n)
Under $500	Vocational	11.11%	19.00	(36)
	Proprietary	32.00	60.87	(25)
	Two-Year	27.85	13.18	(219)
	Four-Year	40.62	13.86	(128)
	University	41.18	8.29	(17)
$500-799	Vocational	32.26%	20.20	(31)
	Proprietary	50.00	33.81	(42)
	Two-Year	38.29	14.77	(316)
	Four-Year	54.12	11.13	(364)
	University	49.00	9.14	(100)
$800-1199	Vocational	83.33%	35.60	(6)
	Proprietary	75.56	45.82	(45)
	Two-Year	51.27	20.23	(197)
	Four-Year	60.12	11.71	(346)
	University	66.67	13.15	(90)
$1200 or more	Vocational	-	-	(3)
	Proprietary	78.57	50.97	(42)
	Two-Year	67.35	27.86	(98)
	Four-Year	74.21	19.52	(159)
	University	67.50	19.52	(40)

striving toward the same end by endeavoring to establish a ceiling within each award level.

The analysis of the recommendations made by the panels has raised questions about equality of educational opportunity. Students from low-income families are expected to have as great a chance of enrolling in a high cost institution as the student with comparable attributes not requiring financial assistance. However, the evidence developed here suggests that chances are being curtailed by the panel decisions: applications which propose high average awards for program participants are most frequently and severely reduced. In fact, the average reduction is the highest for schools which request high awards and also report a high percentage of low-income students.

B. The Appeal[5]

The culmination of this week of intense activity for the panels is the distribution of the recommendation forms to the institutions. In keeping with the jury concept, the institution which considers the decisions to be unjust has been granted the right to appeal. For FY'72 this right was also extended to institutions whose requests had been fully approved. However, this opportunity to revise projected distribution of awards among students from the various income groups did not elicit the universal response that had been anticipated.[6] Instead, appeals were directed to clarification of the original statement of need.

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[5] Since the application data file did not include information for analyzing the outcome of the appeals, pseudo case study materials were obtained from the regional offices. This subsample is comprised of one-third of the appealing institutions and was selective in that the information contained in the file had to be complete to permit tracing the change which took place between initial recommendation and final outcome. Subsequently, it became possible to identify approximately two-thirds of the appellants on the tape file so that data from both samples could be used in complementary fashion.

Requests for reconsideration of the panel decisions were submitted to the Regional offices. Following review by the staff, the aid administrator was generally informed of the outcome by telephone. With the communication carried out on a person-to-person basis, few offers were refused. If agreement could not be reached, the application was taken to Washington for review by a joint committee of Program officials and Senior Program Officers.[7] Most of these cases exposed policy voids. In other words, Senior Program Officers were unable to resolve problem cases because there was no guideline or historical precedent for coping with the situation. Some cases raised philosophical issues, for example, whether all institutions in a region should be penalized because of the excessive--albeit justified--increase in program request of one institution. The cases were resolved, but not the issues. These were set aside until all of the pitfalls uncovered during the processing could be reviewed and a priority of urgency established.[8]

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[6] Program officials attribute the failure to exercise this privilege to confusion regarding interpretation of the form or to the general lack of knowledge about procedure among many of the sequestered aid officers.

[7] In response to suggestions from aid administrators, consultants affiliated with student aid organizations were invited to observe the appeals proceedings and contribute to the discussions.

[8] Within a short time, task groups were appointed to study the problems and recommend corrective measures for the consideration of the Division as a whole.

If the appeals served no other purpose, they provided a communications link between the operational and policy levels which may never have come to pass otherwise.[9] The folklore in financial aid circles identified appellants as the sophisticated administrators affiliated with large institutions. But Table 9.13 seems to refute this claim, or at least to caution that just as applications are received from all sizes and types of institutions, so also are appeals. To be sure, the distribution presented in Table 9.13 points to variation in representation, but at the same time it reveals the inclusive nature of the group.

Despite the fact that all types of schools appealed, on the whole the proportion seeking redress was very low--less than one in seven. And these appellants seem to have been selective in choosing the program recommendations to be reviewed.[10] Among the multiple program schools, 50% concentrated their efforts on a single program and only one out of eight asked for a full review.

The frequency of program appeals among these participating institutions is shown in Table 9.14. Apparently the relatively high reductions made in CWS program requests prompted appeals from many schools. The low rate of appeals among NDSL applicants suggests that some institutions were not able to answer the charge of inadequate delinquency

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[9] One Washington official views the absence of local level contact as one of the major weaknesses in Federal program administration. He is hopeful that a plan for rotating service between the Federal and Regional offices can be worked out so that the existing remoteness can be diminished.

[10] Some Senior Program Officers felt that most schools approached the appeals with the view that if the major deficit could be restored, the small ones could be absorbed.

TABLE 9.13

CHARACTERISTICS OF INSTITUTIONS APPEALING PANEL RECOMMENDATIONS

Institutional Characteristic	Percent of Reduced Cases Appealing	Mean Enrollment	Mean Number Program Students
Type			
University	27.10% (155)	13,753	2,924
Four-year	12.50 (608)	2,641	755
Two-year	11.02 (372)	1,995	335
Proprietary	9.45 (127)	527	333
Vocational	8.33 (24)	900	76
Control			
Public	16.60% (506)	7,771	1,611
Private	11.92 (629)	2,290	687
Predominant Racial Composition			
Black	8.64% (81)	1,137	868
White	13.78 (1205)	5,150	1,143
Program Involvement			
One	5.83% (103)	533	98
Two	9.60 (198)	1,600	331
Three	15.03 (985)	5,651	1,293

control and also reflects the lack of attempts at redress among the proprietary schools--the sector subject to the most severe reductions. If EOG was appealed, the two segments of the program (IY and RY) tended to be presented together.

TABLE 9.14

PERCENT OF PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS
APPEALING PANEL RECOMMENDATION
BY TYPE OF PROGRAM

Financial Aid Program	Percent Appealing
CWS	61.5% (91)
NDSL	37.8 (82)
EOG-IY	50.0 (84)
EOG-RY	49.4 (83)

The comparison between the appealing and the non-appealing institutions can be carried a step further. Table 9.15 presents (for each program) the ratio between the amount requested by schools which were cut but appealed and the amount asked for by institutions which, although cut, did not appeal. The table highlights the proclivity of schools with large requests to appeal. Those appealing CWS for example, had requested 3.3 times as much money as their counterparts who were also cut but did not seek redress.

TABLE 9.15

RATIO OF MEAN AMOUNT OF
REDUCED REQUESTS APPEALED
TO NOT APPEALED RECOMMENDATION

Financial Aid Program	Ratio
CWS	3.30
NDSL	2.13
EOG-IY	1.56
EOG-RY	1.68

In turning to the outcomes of these appeals (Table 9.16), one thing stands out--not all were successes. Some appellants were not able to convince the Senior Program Officer that circumstances warranted an adjustment of the original recommendation. A refusal was in store for one out of four schools appealing NDSL; for one in five EOG-RY appellants, for one in eight seeking review of EOG-IY; but for virtually no one appealing CWS. These same proportions also imply that most schools benefited from the appeal and that the mean amount of their increases was sizeable. The rather high proportion of NDSL appellants whose requests for adjustment were refused is counter-balanced by the high average increase granted those who succeeded in convincing the review committee that a correction was merited. CWS does not fall far below, with increases amounting to approximately 40%; for the two EOG programs, the means are somewhat lower but certainly not minuscule for either.

TABLE 9.16

FINAL OUTCOME OF APPEAL BY TYPE OF PROGRAM

Financial Aid Program	Percent Not Changed	Mean Percent of Increase	(n)
NDSL	24%	55%	(33)
EOG-RY	19	20	(41)
EOG-IY	12	33	(40)
CWS	2	40	(55)

TABLE 9.17

MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION FOR APPEALED AND NOT APPEALED RECOMMENDATIONS BY TYPE OF PROGRAM

Financial Aid Program	Mean Percent of Reduction	
	Appealed	Not Appealed
NDSL	25.0% (86)	24.7% (624)
EOG-IY	28.0 (61)	30.0 (376)
EOG-RY	19.7 (75)	22.1 (471)
CWS	24.1 (82)	29.4 (522)

The benefits of appeal are accentuated by comparing the average reduction for institutions which appealed and those which did not. The percentages in Table 9.17 are based on final outcomes, not the original panel recommendations and show that the reduction for NDSL among appellants is now the same as that for the non-appellant, and that enough of the losses for the other programs have been recovered to improve their positions vis-à-vis the schools which did not appeal.

Table 9.18 presents the outcome of the appeals process in a different manner. It compares the minimum and maximum amounts recommended by the original panel with those of the appeals committee. These figures are truly extremes. The low values are contained a thousand times over in some of the high ones. The after measures in the right hand section of the table point up the improvements that were realized, and highlight the magnitude of the gain made by the small program school.[11]

It is interesting that among the minimum program schools the appeals resulted in proportionally high increments of NDSL money but almost no additional EOG-IY funds. On the contrary, for institutions appealing the largest recommendations, the greatest increments were in CWS and EOG-IY--the two target programs.

All in all, the appeals process appears to have been beneficial for most participants. For one thing, program officials were alerted to

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[11] If it is at all justified to equate smallness with institutional type, it would appear to have been an asset throughout the appeals process. Each one of the vocational schools speaking out was restored to the full amount of the original request. A similar gain was obtained by approximately 30% of the two-year schools, but by only 18% of the four-year schools and universities which appealed the panel recommendation.

TABLE 9.18

MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM RECOMMENDATION
OF PANEL AND APPEAL COMMITTEE

Financial Aid Program	Panel Recommendation		Appeal Recommendation	
	Minimum (In 1000's of dollars)	Maximum (In 1000's of dollars)	Minimum (In 1000's of dollars)	Maximum (In 1000's of dollars)
CWS	$3.6	$7,800.0	$ 4.6	$9,750.0
NDSL	8.6	1,074.2	13.9	1,163.4
EOG-IY	9.0	7,800.0	9.9	9,600.0
EOG-RY	1.5	1,533.8	2.4	1,618.6

more of the problems encountered in the processing of an application and were exposed to the reality of conflicting values within the staff. Once again, personal contact facilitated clarification of ambiguities and enhanced the reaching of accord. Even the schools which were denied an adjustment discovered what the Senior Program Officer viewed as inadequacies in documentation or weaknesses in the arguments presented. But these failures were far outnumbered by the triumphs--this time they were the rule, and particularly so for the small school.

C. The Last Step: The Appropriation

Throughout this chapter, the discussion has centered around requests, recommendations, reductions, rates, and ratios--all subjects of a rather abstract nature. But so far, none of these words has succeeded in getting the first student into college. To accomplish this, it is necessary to open the Federal Treasury. This right is granted by the law which authorizes the appropriation of funds for the support of each program and stipulates the factors to be taken into account in apportioning the monies among the states. For NDSL and EOG, these factors comprise a single ratio: the number of students enrolled full-time in institutions of higher education in the state to the number in all the states. The same relationship contributes only one-third of the weight to the CWS formula. Two other ratios each contribute one-third to this formula: the number of high school graduates in the state to the number in all states, and the number of related children under eighteen years of age in families with annual incomes of less than three thousand dollars. In the end, it is these formulae which determine the amount of the award that eventually filters down to the student.

In preference to turning back to the beginning of Chapter Eight to review the rudiments of the allocation process, a brief summary will be presented here. Prior to FY'72 each institution in the state received the same percentage of its recommendation as every other, but with the advent of "targeting"[12] for the Initial Year EOG and CWS programs, this equality of share would not necessarily prevail. The formulae were still to regulate the aid funds that would be available for each state; however, following adjustments for renewal grants and the 80% guarantee,[13] the remaining funds were to be distributed in a stepwise manner. This procedure called for completely satisfying the need for awards to students from the lowest income bracket before moving to the next higher bracket. For each school, the allotment continued to be determined by the amount of the recommendation, and so long as funds permitted, small and large alike received the full amount for each income bracket. When available funds could no longer meet total demand, the remaining funds were shared proportionally to cover as much of the remaining need as possible. The outcome of this allocation process is shown in Table 9.19.

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[12] i.e., targeting monies for low-income (under $6000/year) students.

[13] No institution was to receive less than 80% of the FY'71 allocation. See, Office of Education, "College Work-Study Program: Allocation of Student Aid Funds to Institutions," *Federal Register*, Vol. XXXVI, No. 51, p. 4984. March 16, 1971.

The first thing that stands out in this table are program differences in the levels of funding. From the totals in the top line it is clear that neither EOG-IY nor CWS--the two target programs--has been funded at as high a level as NDSL. These differences reflect the program priorities established by the Congress when it released funds to partly offset the severe shortages that remained after the original appropriations were distributed. At that time, EOG-IY funds were 45% below approved amount; those for CWS, 35% and for NDSL, 30%. Though shortages were somewhat reduced, imbalances among programs persisted.[14]

Table 9.19 also highlights the differences in the mean percentages of recommendations which were actually funded in schools with varying proportions of low-income students. It is certainly clear that the rate of funding for EOG is completely unrelated to the degree of

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[14] The increased emphasis on loans was a matter of concern to Program Officials. They were searching for a means to control the magnitude of student indebtedness. It has been reported that some program participants had secured loans from outside agencies in excess of $3000 a year in order to cope with the cost of attending college.

TABLE 9.19

MEAN PERCENT OF RECOMMENDATION FUNDED BY PROGRAM AND PERCENT OF ENROLLMENT FROM LOW-INCOME FAMILIES

Percent of Enrollment from Low-Income Families	Mean Percent of Recommendation Funded					
	EOG-IY		CWS		NDSL	
Total	63.53%	(1415)	81.38%	(1630)	86.35%	(1358)
Less than 15%	64.02	(432)	79.53%	(458)	85.62	(428)
15-24	62.20	(335)	79.73	(364)	85.69	(313)
25-34	64.56	(264)	80.09	(300)	86.09	(244)
35-54	62.86	(221)	81.65	(287)	87.17	(216)
55-100	64.23	(163)	89.31	(221)	88.90	(157)

need--if the percent of the student body from families with annual incomes below $6000[15] is accepted as an indicator of need. In comparing the mean percentages for the extreme groups, no difference is detected between these values for EOG, while NDSL has channelled only a slightly higher percentage of new capital to those schools with the highest concentration of low-income students. A larger difference, however, obtains for CWS. This amounts to 10%, with the increase occurring mainly between the 35-54% low-income class and the 55-100% one.

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[15] This group is subsequently referred to as low-income in the identification of either families or students.

Table 9.20 presents evidence that the application procedures initiated in FY'72 apparently succeeded in channeling smaller portions of the appropriation to schools which intended to use less of their program funds for awards to low-income students. For both EOG and CWS, the higher the commitment of funds to low-income students,[16] the higher the proportion of the final recommendation which was funded. The more generous funding of the CWS program is clearly evident in these percentages. The schools with the lowest commitment of CWS funds to low-income students have been funded at the same rate (73%) as schools with a maximum commitment of EOG-IY funds to students from the same income group.

When the allocation of funds for these two programs is viewed as a percentage of the amount projected for distribution to the low-income students (as shown in the last column of Table 9.20), the outcome is a little different. The EOG-IY schools in the class with the lowest proportion of the request committed to low-income students have projected funds in excess of the need for this group. On the other hand, schools which have planned to award 100% of their EOG-IY funds to low-income students have not projected enough to go around. For CWS, the pattern is the same, although high projected need for low-income students is fulfilled to a somewhat greater extent. These percentages show the effect of the 80% guarantee that was incorporated in the funding procedure to safeguard program operations at schools with few students from

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[16] The relative commitment of funds to low-income students for each program was calculated by dividing the sum of the amounts requested for awards in the two lowest income classes by the total amount requested for all income classes.

TABLE 9.20

MEAN PERCENT OF RECOMMENDATION FUNDED FOR EOG-IY AND CWS PROGRAMS BY LEVEL OF COMMITMENT TO LOW INCOME STUDENTS

Percent of Funds Committed for Awards To Low-Income Students	Mean Percent of Total Recommendation Funded[a]	Mean Percent Of Low-Income Commitment Funded	(n)
EOG-IY			
100%	73.49%	73.49%	(256)
90-99	71.08	76.51	(276)
80-89	67.32	80.30	(447)
70-79	63.02	85.28	(414)
55-69	57.57	92.45	(362)
Less than 55%	51.26	118.03	(169)
CWS			
80-100%	89.25%	81.16%	(379)
70-79	85.98	93.53	(318)
60-69	83.98	106.01	(344)
50-59	80.31	118.98	(408)
40-49	76.47	138.84	(335)
Less than 40%	73.47	250.92	(408)

[a] Requests adjusted to reflect panel recommendations.

low-income families and consequently a small portion of need for this group. Without this built-in protection, many programs would have been jeopardized or virtually extinguished. Under these circumstances, students from families with higher incomes could have been deprived of Federal aid. And possibly even forced to withdraw from college; which would have meant lost revenue for the institution as well.

TABLE 9.21

SELECTED FINANCIAL AID INDICATORS BY LEVEL OF COMMITMENT TO LOW-INCOME STUDENTS

Percent of Funds Committed for Awards To Low-Income Students	Mean Total Recommendation	Mean Basic Costs	Mean Weight Of Program
EOG-IY			
100%	$53,826	$1,718	20.41%
90-99	73,670	1,737	20.75
80-89	64,875	1,821	21.46
70-79	78,861	2,017	20.81
55-69	84,914	2,223	21.67
Less than 55%	45,847	2,284	22.63
CWS			
80-100%	$95,521	$1,582	52.30%
70-79	116,770	1,564	49.50
60-69	129,978	1,779	42.76
50-59	129,278	1,904	41.50
40-49	119,823	2,166	38.86
Less than 40%	128,585	2,451	39.29

In Table 9.21 dollars are substituted for mean percentages, and two other factors with relevance to program funding have been included in the table. The first is the typical combined cost of tuition and daily sustenance for students attending these institutions; the other is the recommended weight of each program in the total federal aid program.[17] With the exception of the least committed EOG-IY category, the mean amount approved for funding is lowest among schools planning to distribute 100% of the program funds to low-income students, but is higher for schools with lower commitments. The same pattern is apparent in the relationship between commitment and mean costs. Schools with the highest commitment are lowest in cost, but this combination of commitment and cost does not imply a high initial year grant nor one what will be a major component of student aid as borne out by the mean weight of the program in the total recommendation. In fact, the reliance on EOG funds is almost the same for all classes, regardless of commitment. The importance of CWS as a source of aid does change, however. Earnings are expected to comprise over one-half of the aid at the highly committed schools but contribute relatively less to the total aid program as commitment decreases. All of these factors taken together are further extensions of institutional types ranging from the low cost commuter school with a high low-income/minority enrollment to the high cost more selective boarding school with very few students from families with annual incomes of less than $6000.

The measures presented so far have been global in scope. But it should be pointed out that such indicators as mean percentages or dollar amounts, tend to mask the fact that many institutions fall below each average while others rise above it. For federal student financial aid funds, the major factor behind these differences is the state allocation formula, which is based on population characteristics --not on those of the participating institutions. The application of this formula produces a unique rate of need satisfaction for each state. In common parlance, one state may become identified as a 60% CWS state, while another might be an 80% or 85% state. This means that the Federal funds allotted to the state would be able to satisfy only that specific portion of the amount recommended for the CWS programs in the state. The impact of this formula on the distribution of student aid funds among the regions is examined in the next few tables.[18]

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[17] The recommended proportion that EOG, CWS, or NDSL money constitutes of the total request is usually the one that was originally proposed by the financial aid officer. The panel seldom tampered with the relationship among the programs outlined in the application.

Table 9.22 presents general background information which may facilitate interpretation of the tables which follow. The first measure is the mean percent of enrollment from low-income families, with the next two columns showing the mean percent of EOG-IY and CWS funds committed to low-income students. The national averages appear on the top line. For the schools reporting low-income enrollment data, about one-fourth (28%) of the students come from families with low annual incomes; and on the average, aid officers across the nation planned to use 78% of their expected EOG-IY allocations and 58% of the CWS funds to enable some of these students to continue their education beyond high school. The differences among regions in the number of potential award

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[18] The results of funding within each region duplicate the pattern of the distributions in Table 9.22. For the interested reader, the data can be found in Appendix Tables A.9.5 and A.9.6.

TABLE 9.22

MEAN PERCENT OF LOW-INCOME ENROLLMENT AND COMMITMENT OF PROGRAM FUNDS TO LOW-INCOME STUDENTS BY FEDERAL REGION

Federal Region	Mean Percent Low-Income Enrollment	Mean Percent Program Funds Committed to Low-Income Students	
		EOG-IY	CWS
The Nation	28.01% (1,363)	78.02% (2,020)	58.49% (2,291)
I	17.88% (106)	72.81% (191)	47.72% (214)
II	21.55% (132)	78.84% (201)	54.23% (223)
III	22.48% (153)	73.02% (240)	51.65% (264)
IV	39.31% (304)	82.33% (365)	66.74% (412)
V	21.08% (286)	76.35% (341)	55.05% (393)
VI	49.26% (66)	81.59% (179)	67.31% (225)
VII	25.18% (119)	76.75% (162)	58.13% (173)
VIII	30.60% (47)	79.37% (84)	59.50% (95)
IX	28.55% (148)	80.28% (184)	63.10% (214)
X	22.67% (52)	78.89% (73)	58.70% (78)

recipients from low-income families is rather striking, with Regions IV and VI having the highest concentrations. These differences are paralleled by the proportion of program funds committed to students from this group. However, neither of these regions exceeds the national program averages, despite their relatively high concentrations of low-income enrollments.

More crucial than the percent of funds committed to the support of low-income students is the portion of the commitment that is actually funded. The two center columns in Table 9.23 show that in the nation as a whole only 86% of the EOG-IY monies needed for low-income students reached the financial aid office. This means that the average EOG allocation is not only insufficient to cover the awards anticipated for the lowest income students, but that there is no chance at all of including an initial year grant in the financial aid package of anyone coming from a family with a higher income.[19] When it comes to CWS, however, funding not only permits the projected need among low-income students to be covered, but also leaves an average 34% of that amount to provide for employment for students from higher income brackets. Again, the averages in this table confirm the more abundant appropriation for the work program approved by the Congress.

The regional outcomes are interesting to note. Neither Region IV or VI, the two with the highest low-income enrollments, would be able

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[19] The actual distribution of the allocated funds among students from the various income brackets was left to the discretion of the financial aid officer. There was no mandate for him to adhere to the plan outlined on page 1-1 of the application.

TABLE 9.23

MEAN WEIGHT OF PROGRAM AND LEVELS OF FUNDING BY FEDERAL REGION

Federal Region	Mean Weight Of Program		Mean Percent Of Low-Income Commitment Funded		Mean Percent Of Recommendation Funded	
	EOG	CWS	EOG	CWS	EOG	CWS
The Nation	21.12%	43.63%	85.56%	134.30%	64.51%	81.40%
I	20.80	42.13	105.20	168.85	73.91	74.80
II	21.50	38.45	68.53	114.94	52.05	67.62
III	21.03	39.61	105.53	188.46	74.90	96.80
IV	19.69	48.70	72.52	117.04	58.32	86.86
V	22.68	41.61	80.59	142.73	59.45	78.97
VI	19.97	49.95	93.19	122.24	74.63	91.04
VII	21.15	41.62	102.85	156.85	76.16	96.20
VIII	20.04	45.24	77.85	107.78	61.02	71.92
IX	23.05	43.09	74.95	88.98	59.69	64.99
X	20.11	45.28	81.87	103.91	59.77	67.75

to cover the EOG-IY awards committed to students from this income group. Region VI does come fairly close to the goal, however. In both Regions, all of the funds committed for the CWS employment of low-income students would be available, with some funds remaining to provide jobs for students from the other income brackets. In moving to the outcomes for the overall operation of the programs presented in the last two columns of the table, the percent of the recommendations funded in Region VI is ten points above the national average for both programs. In Region IV, however, EOG-IY funding is below the national figure even though both the mean commitment and low-income enrollment are high.

As for the other sections of the country, Region II received the smallest portion of its need for EOG-IY funds whether measured by commitment or recommendation of the panel. On the other hand, Regions I, III, and VII--each with a mean enrollment of low-income students below the national average (Table 9.21)--are the only ones receiving enough money to meet the need for initial year grants requested for low-income students. The CWS schools in these same regions could not only pay the wages of the low-income students but would also have over half again as much left to subsidize job opportunities for students from families with higher incomes. In fact, Regions III and VII are not far below 100% funding for the total CWS program (97% and 96% respectively).

The last table presents the mean funding level of the combined recommendation,[20] followed by the relative number of institutions in

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[20] The final recommendations for NDSL, EOG, and CWS have been summed.

TABLE 9.24

MEAN FUNDING LEVEL OF TOTAL FEDERAL AID RECOMMENDATION AND INSTITUTIONAL STANDING BY FEDERAL REGION

Federal Region	Mean Percent of Total Aid Recommendation Funded	Percent of Institutions Falling Below National Funding Level	Percent of Institutions Receiving Less Than Two-Thirds of Recommendation	(n)
The Nation	79.22%	47.03%	19.26%	(2,326)
I	73.69	68.54	27.23	(213)
II	70.69	74.30	34.62	(234)
III	91.23	7.91	4.32	(278)
IV	80.99	40.75	12.00	(400)
V	73.27	64.11	26.24	(404)
VI	89.25	15.65	5.22	(230)
VII	90.12	7.65	0.59	(170)
VIII	72.67	71.72	33.33	(99)
IX	71.90	71.95	32.58	(221)
X	73.66	66.23	32.47	(77)

each region falling below the national level of funding, then by the number of schools which received less than two-thirds of this recommended amount. Regions III, VI, and VII are the only ones in the nation to come within ten percentage points of the approved need. The rest would be unable to cope with over one-fourth of the approved need. The importance of NDSL in program operations can be detected in these means by comparing the means in the last two columns of Table 9.23 with those in the first column of Table 9.24. NDSL has pulled the mean total funding level up considerably in Regions II, VIII, IX, and X. Despite the improvement, funding is well below the 79% national average. The last column of the table expresses the results of funding in these regions in a more forceful manner. Fully one-third of the schools in these regions would have been operating on less than two-thirds of their anticipated budgets. Schools faced with such a constraint might be forced to turn many of the low-income applicants away.

These were the results of funding in FY'72. The financial aid officers had prepared applications which conformed to general program ceilings. Requests had been assessed for reasonableness of demand. Recommendations had been made. Grievances were redressed. The funding procedures, guided by the state formulae in conjunction with the anticipated distribution of program funds outlined on page 1-1, had succeeded in targeting EOG-IY and CWS monies to institutions with the highest commitment of funds to low-income students. But funds ran out before need was met, severely crippling program operations in many regions of the country. The shortage was most acute for EOG-IY. The appropriation for this program did not even cover the projected need among students from families with annual incomes below $6,000. The CWS allocations did assure the employment planned for students from this income group but there was little left to permit offering jobs to students from families with higher incomes. In most cases, the difference between need and award could be partly compensated by a loan. The cost to the low-income student endeavoring to continue his education beyond high school was increased indebtedness. The answer to the dilemma rests with the Congress. Only through the power of legislative enactment can program imbalances be corrected and geographic inequities obliterated.

APPENDIX A

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

TABLE A.1

RACE AND ETHNIC BACKGROUND OF 1970-71 CWS STUDENTS AND 1969-70 EOG RECIPIENTS

Race	FAO Sample		Questionnaire Respondents	
	CWS (1970-71)	EOG (1969-70)	CWS (1970-71)	EOG (1969-70)
Black	23.4%	24.8%	18.1%	22.0%
Indian	.4	.3	.8	.5
Oriental	.9	.9	1.4	1.0
Spanish[a]	5.2	6.1	4.7	7.3
White	67.2	67.9	72.5	69.2
Other	2.9	-	2.6	-
	(10,242)	(10,166)	(7,830)	(9,789)
NA	(577)	(543)	(224)	(166)

[a] Includes Spanish, Mexican-American, Puerto Rican

TABLE A.2.1

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF 1969-70 AND 1970-71 ACE FRESHMEN, 1960-70 EOG FRESHMEN, AND 1970-71 CWS FRESHMEN

Selected Characteristics	ACE Freshmen		CWS	EOG
	1969	1970	1970	1969
Age	(270,000)	(180,684)	(2137)	(2559)
16 and under	.1%	.1%	.2%	.3%
17	3.8	3.8	1.9	2.0
18	74.0	73.2	52.8	58.0
19	14.3	14.4	32.9	30.6
20	2.1	2.0	5.4	4.5
21	1.0	.9	2.2	1.5
22 or older	4.7	5.5	4.4	3.1
Residence While Growing Up	(270,000)	(180,684)	(2130)	(2559)
On a farm	9.7%	9.2%	17.1%	20.2%
In a small town	21.4	20.4	29.6	28.9
In a moderate size town	34.7	32.0	27.0	25.0
Suburb	20.9	23.2	11.3	9.3
Large city	13.3	15.3	15.0	16.6
Racial Background	(270,000)	(180,684)	(2095)	(2548)
White	90.9%	88.6%	69.4%	71.0%
Black	6.0	9.1	20.1	24.1
American Indian	.3	.2	.9	.4
Oriental American	1.7	.9	1.5	1.2
Other	1.1	1.1	8.1	3.3
Father's Education	(270,000)	(180,684)	(2038)	(2499)
Grammar school or less	10.0%	10.7%	30.1%	32.7%
Some high school	16.7	16.0	17.5	18.4
High school graduate	30.2	29.1	33.3	29.3
Some college	17.6	17.0	10.1	11.6
College graduate	16.8	17.7	4.6	4.4
Post-college education	8.8	9.5	4.5	3.7

TABLE A.2.1--Continued

Selected Characteristics	ACE Freshmen		CWS	EOG
	1969	1970	1970	1969
Mother's Education	(270,000)	(180,684)	(2088)	(2535)
Grammar school or less	6.4%	7.1%	21.3%	22.0%
Some high school	14.4	14.4	17.7	20.2
High school graduate	43.2	42.6	42.2	37.9
Some college	18.7	18.3	11.9	13.8
College graduate	14.0	14.6	5.0	3.9
Post-college education	2.8	3.0	1.9	2.2
Father's Occupation	(270,000)	(180,684)	(2078)	(2494)
Professional or semi-professional	16.5%	16.8%	9.4%	7.0%
Business	29.5	30.1	15.1	16.1
Skilled worker	13.5	12.4	22.4	14.7
Semi-skilled worker	8.3	8.1	15.4	13.7
Unskilled worker	4.2	4.5	13.6	19.8
Unemployed	1.2	1.4	9.4	12.1
Other	26.4	26.7	14.6	16.6[a]
Parental Income	(270,000)	(180,684)	(2123)	(3319)
Under $4000	5.5%	5.9%	28.7%	42.4%
$4000-5999	9.0	7.7	20.4	33.7
$6000-7999	13.4	10.7	21.9	17.6
$8000-9999	16.6	13.3	17.4	5.4
$10,000 or more	55.4	62.4	11.6	1.0
Average Grade in High School	(270,000)	(180,684)	(2126)	(2570)
A or A+	4.3%	5.3%	7.2%	7.1%
A-	8.2	9.2	12.4	13.7
B+	15.6	17.4	22.2	23.6
B	23.7	24.3	19.8	21.3
B-	15.6	16.2	13.8	13.2
C+	16.9	15.9	14.2	12.9
C	14.7	11.0	9.9	7.8
Less than C	.9	.7	.4	.4

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[a] Includes don't know.

TABLE A.2.1--Continued

Selected Characteristics	ACE Freshmen		CWS	EOG
	1969	1970	1970	1969
High School Rank	(270,000)	(180,684)	(2125)	(2540)
Top quarter	50.7%	42.2%	65.3%	52.3%
Second quarter	26.6	31.3	24.0	27.0
Third quarter	18.2	22.3	8.8	13.7
Bottom quarter	4.7	4.2	1.9	7.0
Highest Degree Planned	(270,000)	(180,684)	(1951)	(2114)
Associate or less	10.7%	9.7%	16.1%	5.6%
B.A. or B.S.	38.2	38.7	45.1	49.2
M.A. or higher	51.1	49.0	38.8	45.2
Other	-	2.6	-	-

TABLE A.2.2

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF 1970-71 FRESHMEN (CWS AND ACE SAMPLES) BY INSTITUTIONAL TYPE

Selected Characteristics	University		Four-Year		Two-Year	
	CWS	ACE	CWS	ACE	CWS	ACE
Age						
16 or under	.2%	.1%	.1%	.1%	.4%	.1%
17	3.4	5.1	2.5	4.2	.5	2.6
18	54.8	80.8	58.5	80.1	45.8	60.2
19	35.7	11.3	31.3	12.3	33.0	18.9
20	2.8	.7	3.2	1.2	9.2	3.9
21	1.5	.3	1.4	.5	3.5	1.9
22 or older	1.5	1.6	3.0	1.6	7.6	12.4
Residence While Growing Up						
Farm	13.7%	6.6%	17.2%	9.2%	18.9%	11.0%
Small town	24.8	16.6	30.1	20.9	31.9	22.5
Moderate size town	28.5	33.4	26.4	31.6	26.9	31.4
Suburb	15.0	30.7	11.9	24.3	8.5	16.7
Large city	18.0	12.7	14.4	14.1	13.8	18.4
Racial Background						
White	69.1%	94.6%	71.3%	90.1%	67.7%	82.9%
Black	19.6	3.6	21.4	8.1	19.0	14.2
American Indian	.6	.1	.6	.2	1.4	.3
Oriental	1.7	1.1	1.1	.8	1.7	1.0
Other	8.9	.6	5.5	.9	10.2	1.7
Father's Education						
Grammar school or less	25.4%	5.1%	29.8%	8.8%	33.1%	16.9%
Some high school	14.5	10.2	15.6	15.0	21.2	21.2
High school graduate	37.9	25.7	32.9	29.6	31.0	30.9
Some college	10.7	18.7	9.8	17.6	9.9	15.1
College graduate	4.4	25.7	6.3	18.2	3.0	11.5
Post-college education	7.1	14.6	5.5	10.7	1.8	4.5

TABLE A.2.2--Continued

Selected Characteristics	University		Four-Year		Two-Year	
	CWS	ACE	CWS	ACE	CWS	ACE
Mother's Education						
Grammar school or less	15.6%	3.0%	20.3%	5.5%	25.4%	11.8%
Some high school	15.6	8.5	14.9	13.0	21.8	20.2
High school graduate	46.4	40.0	43.2	43.9	38.8	43.0
Some college	14.2	22.9	13.5	18.9	9.0	14.5
College graduate	5.8	21.1	6.0	15.4	3.4	9.1
Post-college education	2.4	4.5	2.1	.3	1.5	1.5
Father's Occupation						
Professional or semi-professional	10.8%	22.0%	11.2%	17.5%	6.9%	11.4%
Business	15.0	36.5	16.5	30.8	13.6	24.4
Skilled worker	23.6	9.7	19.8	12.2	24.3	14.6
Semi-skilled worker	15.9	5.0	15.8	7.6	14.7	10.8
Unskilled worker	13.2	2.0	11.2	4.0	16.4	6.8
Unemployed	6.0	.9	9.4	1.3	11.4	1.7
Other	15.4	23.2	16.0	26.1	12.7	29.9
Parental Income						
Under $4000	a	2.6%	a	5.0%	a	9.2%
$4000-5999		4.5		7.0		10.8
$6000-7999		7.5		10.4		13.3
$8000-9999		10.6		13.4		15.2
$10,000-14,999		31.6		32.1		29.5
$15,000 or more		43.1		32.1		22.0
Average Grade in High School						
A or A+	13.3%	9.5%	8.1%	6.0%	2.9%	1.6%
A-	16.3	14.8	15.3	10.6	7.3	3.7
B+	27.7	22.9	25.4	20.3	15.8	10.3
B	18.5	24.8	20.1	26.5	20.3	21.4
B-	12.7	13.8	11.8	16.1	16.4	17.9
C+	7.7	9.3	11.8	13.0	20.4	23.7
C	3.9	4.6	7.4	7.2	15.9	19.9
Less than C	-	.3	-	.3	1.0	1.5

TABLE A.2.2--Continued

Selected Characteristics	University		Four-Year		Two-Year	
	CWS	ACE	CWS	ACE	CWS	ACE
High School Rank						
Top quarter	77.6%	63.5%	71.9%	48.5%	49.5%	19.5%
Second quarter	18.1	26.0	19.2	33.6	33.6	32.6
Third quarter	4.1	9.3	7.9	15.7	12.9	39.4
Bottom quarter	.2	1.2	.9	2.3	4.0	8.4
Highest Degree Planned						
Associate or less	6.3%	2.5%	6.5%	2.6%	32.9%	23.0%
B.A. or B.S.	43.7	35.9	50.1	40.9	40.4	38.2
M.A. or higher	50.0	60.7	43.4	55.3	26.8	33.4
Other	-	.8	-	1.2	-	5.5
High School Going To College						
More than 75%	15.6%	35.0%	16.5%	30.4%	13.0%	24.7%
About 50% to 75%	40.9	34.6	42.9	35.6	43.2	37.1
About 25% to 50%	34.8	21.6	31.4	23.8	34.3	23.8
Less than 25%	8.7	8.9	9.2	10.2	9.4	14.4

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[a] CWS data were not available for these income breaks.

TABLE A.2.3(a)

EXPECTED PARENTAL CONTRIBUTION BY SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS (Student Respondents)

Selected Student Characteristics	(n)	Expected Parental Contribution		
		None	$1-499	$500+
Residence During School Year				
At home	(1845)	59.8%	30.4%	9.8%
Dormitory	(3249)	39.9	31.4	28.7
Off-campus apartment	(1734)	67.7	19.1	13.1
Present Class				
Freshman	(1992)	46.0%	33.6%	20.4%
Junior	(1414)	53.7	25.0	21.3
Graduate student	(309)	76.7	12.9	10.4
Use of Supportive Service				
Yes	(3002)	55.3%	28.4%	16.2%
No	(4233)	51.0	27.1	21.9
In Choice of College, Availability of Financial Aid Was				
Primary consideration	(3103)	55.8%	28.5%	15.7%
Not important	(672)	51.0	24.1	24.8
Student Classification				
Independent	(2720)	83.4%	13.1%	3.5%
Parent-supported	(4365)	33.7	36.5	29.8
Ethnic Background				
Black	(1237)	53.5%	36.0%	10.5%
White	(5146)	51.8	25.8	22.4
Other minority	(644)	59.5	25.6	14.9
Marital Status				
Single	(6188)	47.8%	30.5%	21.6%
Married, separated or divorced	(946)	85.1	8.6	6.3

TABLE A.2.3(a)--Continued

Selected Student Characteristics	(n)	Expected Parental Contribution		
		None	$1-499	$500+
Occupation of Household Head				
Professional	(824)	44.5%	26.1%	29.4%
Skilled worker	(1437)	50.9	27.0	22.1
Laborer	(913)	59.5	30.9	9.6
Unemployed	(457)	71.8	21.4	6.8
Gross Family Income				
Under $3000	(852)	69.0%	25.2%	5.8%
$9000 or more	(1624)	42.9	24.0	33.2

TABLE A.2.3(b)

SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS BY EXPECTED PARENTAL CONTRIBUTION (Student Respondents)

Selected Student Characteristics	Expected Parental Contribution		
	None	$1-499	$500+
Mean CWS Earnings	$568 (3391)	$494 (1826)	$484 (1292)
Mean EOG	$572 (1536)	$516 (751)	$538 (255)
Mean NDSL	$582 (1513)	$497 (787)	$554 (554)
Mean Total Financial Aid	$1426 (3673)	$1245 (1946)	$1252 (1378)
Financial Aid Will Cover Expenses	49.2% (3738)	55.2% (1985)	61.3% (1391)
Mean Additional Aid Needed	$680 (1771)	$467 (827)	$667 (498)
Additional Sources of Financial Aid:	(3822)	(2001)	(1414)
Savings	39.5%	49.2%	54.0%
Summer employment	50.4	54.7	61.0
College scholarship	25.6	28.5	34.9
Other sources (social security, veterans benefits)	18.7	12.9	10.4

TABLE A.2.4

SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS BY STUDENT FINANCIAL STATUS
(Independent versus Parent-Supported)

Selected Student Characteristics	Independent	Parent-Supported
Demographic		
Male	52.3% (2847)	35.6% (4671)
Black	16.0 (2802)	19.2 (4596)
21+	58.7 (2835)	23.8 (4676)
Single	69.0 (2842)	97.3 (4674)
Father family head	73.7 (2793)	80.4 (4603)
Family head laborer or unemployed	21.9 (2789)	18.2 (4587)
Family received welfare	14.3 (2834)	9.7 (4669)
Academic		
Senior or graduate student	34.8% (2512)	22.6% (4209)
Living in off-campus apartment	41.7 (2842)	13.4 (4685)
Used one or more supportive service	44.1 (2891)	40.4 (4734)
Mean GPA		
Financial Aid		
CWS earnings are 700+	38.2% (2513)	22.6% (4209)
Total aid is $1500+	38.2 (2734)	32.3 (4503)
No parental contribution	83.5 (2720)	33.8 (4365)
Need $1000+ additional	29.5 (1432)	14.8 (1795)
Other sources of financial aid:		
Spouse	19.5% (2891)	1.5% (4736)
Savings	41.2 (2891)	46.6 (4736)
Additional term-time employment	24.7 (2891)	19.1 (4736)
College scholarship	23.9 (2891)	30.2 (4736)
State scholarship	8.7 (2891)	13.7 (4736)
Loan	21.2 (2891)	17.6 (4736)
Other (Social Security, (Veterans Benefits)	21.0 (2891)	12.6 (4736)

TABLE A.2.5

SELECTED SOURCES OF FUNDS FOR MEETING COLLEGE COSTS BY GROSS PARENTAL INCOME

Sources of Funds for College Costs	Gross Parental Income--FAO Respondents				
	Under $3000	$3000 -5999	$6000 -7499	$7500 -8999	$9000 or over
Mean Parental Contribution	$428 (171)	$376 (515)	$465 (535)	$564 (582)	$833 (995)
Mean CWS Earnings	$574 (1139)	$527 (1588)	$527 (851)	$499 (689)	$492 (962)
Mean EOG	$549 (566)	$553 (815)	$529 (344)	$498 (220)	$545 (134)
Mean NDSL	$556 (482)	$532 (714)	$546 (362)	$527 (270)	$596 (394)
Mean Total Financial Aid Package	$1375 (1248)	$1320 (1707)	$1278 (914)	$1243 (740)	$1209 (1025)
Mean Tuition, Fees, Room and Board, and Commuting Costs	$1457 (1254)	$1524 (1706)	$1638 (896)	$1719 (720)	$1824 (1027)

TABLE A.3.1

WHAT STUDENT WOULD HAVE DONE IF NO CWS JOB HAD BEEN AVAILABLE

If No CWS Job Had Been Available	Percent
Wouldn't have made much difference	4.7%
Would have managed to attend same school without working	15.9
Would have looked for other employment	53.8
Would have gone to less expensive school	6.9
Probably would not have been able to go to college	18.7
(N)	(7604)

TABLE A.3.2

CWS EARNINGS AS A MEAN PERCENT OF BASIC COLLEGE COSTS BY FEDERAL REGION AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTROL

Federal Region	Institutional Control			
	Public		Private	
I	48.8%	(154)	21.6%	(376)
II	41.9	(278)	30.0	(311)
III	54.2	(510)	23.3	(320)
IV	58.0	(1436)	33.2	(639)
V	44.7	(989)	23.4	(442)
VI	54.4	(982)	33.0	(378)
VII	54.5	(436)	20.4	(183)
VIII	51.7	(534)	29.9	(70)
IX	62.6	(579)	27.1	(116)
X	57.2	(338)	21.5	(102)
All Schools	(53.7%)	(6236)	(27.3%)	(2937)

TABLE A.3.3(a)

CWS EARNINGS AS MEAN PERCENT OF BASIC COLLEGE COSTS BY GROSS FAMILY INCOME AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTROL

Gross Family Income	Institutional Control			
	Public		Private	
Less than $3000	58.0%	(1601)	31.1%	(504)
$9000 or more	47.5	(911)	22.6	(678)

TABLE A.3.3(b)

CWS EARNINGS AS MEAN PERCENT OF BASIC COLLEGE COSTS BY EXPECTED PARENTAL CONTRIBUTION AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTROL

Expected Parental Contribution	Institutional Control			
	Public		Private	
None	55.6%	(3311)	30.1%	(1293)
$1-499	55.2	(1354)	26.3	(530)
$500 or more	46.7	(1163)	22.2	(921)

TABLE A.4.1

RANK OF CWS CATEGORIES ON FOUR SELECTED ATTRIBUTES AND ASSIGNED SUMMARY RANK

Job Category	Job Attributes[a]				Summary Rank
	Pay	Advancement Opportunity	Responsibility	Intelligence	
Clerical, etc.	M	L	M	M	M
Library, Museum	L	L	M	L	L
Teaching, Research	H	H	H	H	H
Security, Maintenance	L	L	L	L	L
Athletic, Recreation	M	M	M	L	M
Hospitality, Food Service	L	L	L	L	L
Tutoring, Classroom	M	H	H	H	H
Technician, Data Processing	H	H	M	H	M
Newspaper, Radio, TV	H	H	H	H	H
Community, Social	H	H	H	H	H
Agriculture, Horticulture	L	M	L	L	L
Arts and Crafts	L	M	M	M	M
Health Professions	M	L	H	M	M
Government and Judiciary	H	M	L	H	H
Other	M	M	L	M	M

[a] The job categories were ranked for each attribute as follows:

H = The five job categories scoring highest on the attribute

L = The five job categories scoring lowest on the attribute

M = The five job categories remaining

TABLE A.4.2

DISTRIBUTION OF JOBS AMONG STUDENTS WITH SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS

Job Category	Sex		Class Level			Gross Family Income	
	Male	Female	Freshman	Senior	Graduate	Less Than $3000	$9000 or more
Clerical, etc.	12.7%	50.2%	37.6%	32.5%	21.3%	33.8%	37.1%
Library, Museum Assistant	10.6	17.4	15.9	13.0	15.3	14.2	15.7
Teaching, Research, Lab	17.4	8.5	8.7	17.4	27.3	13.0	10.2
Security, Maintenance Asst.	15.4	1.5	9.0	4.8	3.2	7.7	5.6
Athletic, Recreation Asst.	10.5	1.3	5.5	5.6	1.9	5.6	4.7
Food, Hospitality Aide	4.2	5.6	7.3	4.1	.9	4.4	5.5
Tutoring, Classroom Asst.	4.9	4.2	2.3	5.3	5.1	4.9	3.8
Technical, Data Processing	4.7	1.3	1.9	3.5	2.8	2.4	3.5
Newspaper, Radio, TV Asst.	2.3	.6	.8	1.4	1.4	.9	1.4
Social, Community Worker	1.3	1.0	.8	1.1	2.8	1.6	1.1
Agriculture, Horticulture Asst	2.6	.2	1.0	1.6	.5	1.2	.7
Arts and Crafts Assistant	1.5	.8	.9	.8	.5	1.0	1.1
Health Professions Aide	.9	.5	.6	1.1	1.9	.2	1.0
Government, Judiciary	.9	.3	.2	.6	2.8	.9	.2
(N)	(2004)	(2011)	(1317)	(1005)	(216)	(1052)	(922)
NA	486	651	427	170	29	275	164

TABLE A.4.2--Continued

Job Category	Ethnicity			High School Program		
	Black	White	Other	General	College	Other
Clerical, etc.	36.9%	34.3%	39.8%	34.7%	34.7%	44.8%
Library, Museum Assistant	13.6	15.3	12.4	14.4	15.1	12.4
Teaching, Research, Lab Asst.	9.6	12.7	11.3	10.4	13.7	5.8
Security, Maintenance Asst.	8.0	7.0	5.5	9.7	5.1	7.5
Athletic, Recreation Asst.	5.2	5.0	3.9	5.2	5.0	2.9
Food, Hospitality Aide	5.6	5.3	1.6	5.0	5.1	3.3
Tutoring, Classroom Asst.	7.4	3.4	8.7	4.3	4.7	5.0
Technical, Data Processing	.7	3.0	3.7	3.0	2.5	1.7
Newspaper, Radio, TV Asst.	.7	1.5	.5	1.1	1.4	.4
Social, Community Worker	2.0	1.0	.9	.8	1.3	1.2
Agriculture, Horticulture Asst.	.7	1.3	.7	1.1	1.1	2.5
Arts and Crafts Assistant	.7	1.2	.5	1.2	.9	1.7
Health Professions Aide	.4	.7	.5	.4	.9	.8
Government, Jundiciary Asst.	1.0	.4	1.1	.6	.6	.4
(N)	(800)	(3611)	(435)	(1967)	(2740)	(241)
NA	354	634	119	525	489	88

TABLE A.4,2--Continued

Job Category	High School Rank		Mean GPA		Mean SAT-V	
	Top 10%	Bottom Half				
Clerical, etc.	37.4%	22.7%	2.68	(1645)	533	(347)
Library, Museum Assistant	16.7	11.4	2.73	(687)	538	(178)
Teaching, Research, Lab Asst.	14.0	11.4	2.77	(552)	565	(157)
Security, Maintenance Asst.	4.6	14.0	2.49	(339)	492	(55)
Athletic, Recreation Asst.	3.1	9.3	2.42	(239)	507	(55)
Food Hospitality Aide	5.1	2.3	2.55	(244)	516	(64)
Tutoring, Classroom Asst.	4.6	7.6	2.72	(208)	526	(40)
Technical, Data Processing	2.8	1.2	2.74	(126)	564	(36)
Newspaper, Radio, TV Asst.	1.0	1.7	2.66	(58)	515	(15)
Social, Community Worker	1.2	2.0	2.57	(51)	554	(15)
Agriculture, Horticulture Asst.	.7	.6	2.56	(52)	462	(10)
Arts and Crafts Assistant	.3	2.9	2.69	(50)	538	(9)
Health Professions Aide	.6	.9	2.62	(29)	587	(7)
Government, Judiciary Asst.	.5	.6	2.68	(23)	567	(10)
(N)	(1920)	(343)				
NA	307	115				

TABLE A.4.3(a)

PERCENT OF STUDENTS REPORTING SELECTED ADVANTAGES OF CWS JOBS

Job Classification and Job Rank	(n)	Suggested Advantages of CWS Employment					
		Learned More About People	Made Good Friends	Acquired Useful Skills	Gained More Confidence	Doing Something Worthwhile	More Sure About Career
All Respondents	(6235)	(70.0%)	(57.6%)	(67.7%)	(60.2%)	(45.4%)	(27.3%)
Job Classification							
Clerical	(1785)	78.8%	60.4%	73.6%	65.8%	42.5%	26.6%
Library, Museum	(746)	65.7	56.4	77.3	55.6	43.7	16.4
Teaching, Research	(609)	62.6	53.9	78.3	59.8	47.8	44.7
Security, Maintenance	(356)	52.0	54.8	36.8	44.4	32.6	9.0
Athletic, Recreation	(255)	64.3	63.9	51.4	62.7	52.5	30.6
Hospitality, Food Serv.	(255)	77.3	68.6	36.5	54.5	31.4	12.5
Tutoring, Classroom	(228)	78.9	54.8	67.1	66.7	75.9	40.8
Technician	(135)	52.6	51.9	87.4	55.6	46.7	39.3
Newspaper, Radio, TV	(63)	77.8	58.7	92.1	73.0	49.2	33.3
Social, Community	(58)	93.1	72.4	86.2	81.0	93.1	50.0
Agriculture, Horticult.	(58)	58.6	58.6	87.9	51.7	31.0	39.7
Arts and Crafts	(55)	60.0	54.5	81.8	67.3	47.3	47.3
Health Professions	(34)	70.6	61.8	64.7	58.8	73.5	41.2
Government, Judiciary	(29)	89.7	62.1	82.8	75.9	65.5	48.3
Job Rank							
High	(987)	69.9%	55.7%	77.2%	63.9%	57.5%	43.4%
Medium	(2264)	75.0	60.2	72.0	64.8	44.4	28.5
Low	(1820)	65.0	57.5	60.7	53.5	40.5	17.0

TABLE A.4.3(b)

PERCENT OF STUDENTS REPORTING SELECTED DISADVANTAGES OF CWS JOBS

Job Classification and Job Rank	(n)	Suggested Disadvantages of CWS Employment				
		Too Little Time For			Confusion About Career	Disillusion with World of Work
		Studying	Extra-Curricular Activities	Friends or Family		
All Student Respondents	(6235)	(25.4%)	(30.4%)	(19.6%)	(5.9%)	(7.1%)
Job Classification						
Clerical	(1785)	28.5%	32.2%	21.0%	5.6%	7.6%
Library, Museum	(746)	28,8	34,0	20.2	5.2	8.6
Teaching, Research	(609)	24.5	30.4	21.5	6.2	4.8
Security, Maintenance	(356)	21.9	34.6	19.7	5.6	7.6
Athletic, Recreation	(255)	16.1	22.4	14.5	6.3	5.9
Hospitality, Food Service	(255)	23.5	33.3	11.8	4.7	11.4
Tutoring, Classroom	(228)	18.4	26.3	14.5	5.7	5.7
Technician	(135)	31.1	31.1	25.9	4.4	5.9
Newspaper, Radio, TV	(63)	31.7	30.2	20.6	12.7	9.5
Social, Community	(58)	19.0	31.0	22.4	13.8	13.8
Agriculture, Horticulture	(58)	31.0	50.0	22.4	5.2	3.4
Arts and Crafts	(55)	18.2	30.9	25.5	9.1	9.1
Health Professions	(34)	20.6	32.4	20.6	8.8	8.8
Government, Judiciary	(29)	27.6	31.0	17.2	6.9	6.9
Job Rank						
High	(987)	23.3%	29.4%	19.8%	7.0%	5.9%
Medium	(2264)	26.9	31.0	20.7	5.7	7.3
Low	(1820)	26.0	33.8	19.6	5.8	8.4

Table A 5.1(a)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Scale: 1=Falls into defined group

0=Not in defined group

Sample: Self-weighting sample of CWS survey respondents who indicated both the job held and the job they would prefer to hold

Independent Variable	Regression Coef- ficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Co- efficient
Ethnicity				
Black	.0677	.0541	1.56	.0474
Oriental	.1683	.0803	4.40	.0389
Spanish speaking	.1646	.0618	7.09	.0658
White	.1406	.0512	7.55	.1163
Other	.0			
Parental Income - 1970				
Under $3000	.0086	.0265	0.11	.0054
$3000-$4499	-.0332	.0249	1.78	-.0223
$4500-$5999	-.0365	.0245	2.22	-.0248
$6000-$7499	-	-	0.00	-.0009
$7500-$8999	.0206	.0251	0.67	.0136
$9000-$10499	-.0583	.0257	5.14	-.0374
$10500-$11999	-.0200	.0331	0.37	-.0095
$12000 and over	-.0124	.0318	0.15	-.0062
Income unknown	.0			
Type Community of High School Residence				
Farm	.0570	.0269	4.47	.0419
Small town	.0505	.0238	4.52	.0454
Moderate size city	.0133	.0238	0.31	.0118
Suburb	.0050	.0275	0.03	.0035
Large city	.0			

Table A 5.1(a)--Continued

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable	Regression Coef- ficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Co- efficient
High school grade average				
A	.0900	.0366	6.06	.0547
A-	.0695	.0337	4.26	.0518
B+	.0594	.0321	3.43	.0509
B	.0796	.0330	5.82	.0624
B-	.0646	.0352	3.38	.0426
C+	.0267	.0359	0.55	.0167
C or lower	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.1075
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.0116
Standard Error	.4980
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4700
Constant Term	.3126

Table A 5.1(b)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable[a]	Regression Coef- ficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Co- efficient
Paid on time	.0737	.0140	27.82	.0831
Hourly rate of pay	.0228	.0259	0.78	.0140
Days worked each week	.0146	.0071	4.24	.0346
Hours worked each week	.0062	.0019	11.07	.0558
Frequency of being paid	-.0025	.0143	0.03	-.0028

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.1130
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.0128
Standard Error	.4964
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4119
Constant Term	.2300

[a] The 1, 0 scale used to create the dummy variables do not apply to this particular group of independent variables: each of these has retained its original scale of values.

Table A 5.1(c)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable	Regression Coef- ficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Co- efficient
Residence while in college				
Home	.0884	.0210	17.75	.0770
Dormitory	.0160	.0186	0.74	.0159
Other dwelling	.0			
Sex				
Female	.0488	.0160	9.36	.0481
Male	.0			
Ethnicity				
Black	.0610	.0576	1.12	.0423
White	.1371	.0545	6.34	.1121
Oriental	.1186	.0863	1.89	.0260
Spanish speaking	.1539	.0653	5.55	.0609
Other	.0			
Class				
Graduate student	.0422	.0426	0.98	.0166
Senior	.0826	.0241	11.78	.0682
Junior	.0389	.0233	2.78	.0324
Sophomore	.0256	.0214	1.43	.0236
Freshman	.0			
Major				
Arts and Humanities	-.0034	.0240	0.02	-.0023
Business	-.0069	.0266	0.07	-.0043
Education	-	-	0.00	.0016
Professional	-.0668	.0316	4.49	-.0338
Science or Math	.0075	.0235	0.10	.0055
Social Science	-.0742	.0212	12.22	-.0598
Other	.0			
Grade Average				
A	.1191	.0488	5.97	.0653
B+	.0448	.0438	1.05	.0373
B	.0400	.0429	0.87	.0358
C+	.0358	.0428	0.70	.0308
C	.0196	.0445	0.20	.0137
D+	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.1486
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.0221
Standard Error	.4950
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4423
Constant	.2845

Table A 5.1(d)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Coefficient
Attitudes Toward Work				
a. I could get better grades if I didn't have to work				
Agrees	-.1036	.0214	23.55	-.0921
Disagrees	.0533	.0186	8.21	.0533
Not sure	.0			
b. Some students look down on those who have to work to pay for college				
Agrees	.0081	.0272	12.37	.0063
Disagrees	.0813	.0231	0.09	.0751
Not sure	.0			
c. Working during school year should be avoided if possible				
Agrees	-.0411	.0270	2.31	-.0339
Disagrees	.0595	.0236	6.39	.0565
Not sure	.0			
d. Most students would be better off if they worked to help pay for college				
Agrees	.0350	.0183	3.66	.0347
Disagrees	-.0398	.0232	2.94	-.0313
Not sure	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.2251
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.0507
Standard Error	.4872
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4385
Constant Term	.4228

Table A 5.1(e)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Coefficient
Assessment of Pay Rate				
High	.2052	.0472	18.92	.0642
About right	.1390	.0162	73.87	.1280
Low	.0			
Satisfaction with college				
Very satisfied	.2553	.0452	31.89	.2533
Somewhat satisfied	.0861	.0452	3.64	.0853
Somewhat dissatisfied	.0148	.0488	0.09	.0092
Very dissatisfied	.0			
How employer would rate performance				
Excellent	.4870	.0887	30.18	.4296
Very good	.3832	.0865	19.61	.3836
Good	.1925	.0855	5.06	.1615
Fair to poor	.0			
How student would rate his performance				
Excellent	.0297	.0966	0.10	.0250
Very good	.0416	.0943	0.20	.0417
Good	.0456	.0931	0.24	.0397
Fair to poor	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.3289
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.1082
Standard Error	.4724
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4382
Constant Term	-.1327

Table A 5.1(f)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable	Regression Coef- ficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Co- efficient
(Job components) Characteristics of Job				
Responsibility	.1867	.0190	97.04	.1569
"Make work"	-.1617	.0184	77.25	-.1266
Intelligence & judgment	.1261	.0165	58.27	.1231
Clerical skills	.0658	.0150	19.37	.0659
Opportunity for advancement	.0965	.0251	14.75	.0551
Physical exertion	-.0605	.0174	12.00	-.0513
Technical skill	.0683	.0208	10.77	.0481
Close supervision	-.0308	.0171	3.22	-.0256
Regular hours	.0248	.0143	2.98	.0248
Other (characteristic)	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.3310
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.1096
Standard Error	.4717
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4435
Constant Term	.2923

Table A 5.1(g)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable	Regression Coef- ficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Co- efficient
Holds job would prefer				
Yes	.3683	.0142	671.19	.3682
No	.0			
Choice in selecting job				
Entire	.2006	.0183	119.93	.1844
Some	.0978	.0166	34.71	.0960
Little or none	.0			
Choice in arranging hours				
Entire	.1194	.0228	27.45	.1188
Some	.0426	.0237	3.24	.0403
Little or none	.0			
Job located where prefers				
Yes	.0643	.0184	12.17	.0529
No preference	.0			
No	-.0978	.0340	8.28	-.0434
Job rank				
High	.0031	.0196	0.02	.0024
Medium	.0497	.0154	10.37	.0494
Low	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.4746
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.2252
Standard Error	.4405
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4277
Constant Term	.0863

Table A 5.2(a)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Holds Job Would Prefer

Independent Variable	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Coefficient
Ethnic Group				
Black	-	-	0.00	-.0009
White	.1065	.0207	26.44	.0880
Oriental	.0126	.0649	0.04	.0029
Spanish speaking	.0418	.0398	1.11	.0167
Other	.0			
Type Community of High School Residence				
Large city	-.0457	.0268	2.90	-.0324
Suburb	-.0921	.0269	11.73	-.0644
Moderate size town or city	-.0639	.0231	7.66	-.0568
Small town	-.0027	.0228	0.01	-.0024
Farm	.0			
Family Income				
Under $3000	-.0301	.0261	1.33	-.0189
3000-4499	.0106	.0244	0.19	.0071
4500-5999	-.0198	.0240	0.68	-.0134
6000-7499	.0101	.0232	0.19	.0071
7500-8999	-	-	0.00	-.0003
9000-10,499	-.0307	.0251	1.50	-.0197
10500-11999	-	-	0.00	.0000
12000 or more	.0065	.0311	0.04	.0033
Income unknown	.0			
Grade Average in High School				
A	-	-	0.00	.0002
A-	.0076	.0207	0.14	.0057
B+	-	-	0.01	-.0013
B	.0296	.0197	2.26	.0232
B-	-	-	0.00	.0003
C+	-.0526	.0244	4.66	-.0329
C	.0287	.0339	0.71	.0126
C-	-.1005	.0686	2.14	-.0214
D+ or lower	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.1247
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.0155
Standard Error	.4970
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4703
Constant Term	.4455

Table A 5.2(b)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Holds Job Would Prefer

Independent Variable	Regression Coef- ficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Co- efficient
Class Level				
Graduate student	.2089	.0424	24.24	.0821
Senior	.1173	.0240	23.97	.0967
Junior	.0781	.0232	11.29	.0651
Sophomore	.0672	.0213	10.00	.0620
Freshman	.0			
Ethnic Group				
Black	-	-	0.01	.0031
White	.1153	.0203	32.20	.0941
Orient	-	-	0.00	-.0008
Spanish speaking	.0288	.0410	0.49	.0114
Other	.0			
Residence while in college				
Home	.0765	.0209	13.44	.0665
Dormitory	.0177	.0184	0.92	.0176
Other dwelling	.0			
Major field of study				
Arts and Humanities	-.0196	.0353	0.31	-.0135
Business	.0486	.0367	1.75	.0300
Education	.0409	.0328	1.56	.0358
Professional	-.1041	.0405	6.60	-.0526
Science or Math	.0581	.0343	2.86	.0425
Social Science	-.0826	.0333	6.16	-.0666
Other field	.0			
Grade Average--Fall 1970-1971				
3.75-4.00	-.0011	.0484	0.00	-.0006
3.25-3.74	-.0578	.0435	1.77	-.0480
2.75-3.24	-.0520	.0427	1.49	-.0465
2.25-2.74	-.0593	.0426	1.94	-.0510
1.75-2.24	-.0505	.0442	1.30	-.0353
1.74 or lower	.0			
Sex				
Female	-.0038	.0161	0.06	-.0037
Male	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.1849
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.0342
Standard Error	.4925
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4424
Constant Term	.3647

Table A 5.2(c)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Holds Job Would Prefer

Independent Variable	Regression Coef- ficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Co- efficient
Choice in selecting job				
Entire	.3044	.0196	242.28	.2800
Some	.1459	.0180	65.86	.1433
Little or none	.0			
Months has held job				
Over 18	.1702	.0322	27.92	.0962
10-18	.1557	.0265	34.51	.1149
7-9	.1219	.0230	27.98	.1122
5-6	.0635	.0232	7.48	.0578
1-4	.0			
Class Level				
Graduate student	.1378	.0428	10.40	.0518
Senior	.0244	.0254	0.93	.0196
Junior	.0095	.0239	0.16	.0078
Sophomore	.0202	.0214	0.89	.0184
Freshman	.0			
Choice in arranging hours				
Entire	.0544	.0247	4.85	.0541
Some	.0578	.0258	5.02	.0546
Little or none	.0			
Work experience				
Both high school and college	-.0306	.0202	2.30	-.0302
Only college	.0490	.0299	2.67	.0293
Only high school	.0			
No previous job	.0264	.0278	0.90	.0163

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.2838
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.0805
Standard Error	.4801
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4271
Constant Term	.1786

Table A 5.2(d)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Holds Job Would Prefer

Independent Variable	Regression Coef- ficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Co- efficient
Choice in selecting job				
Entire	.2993	.0193	241.15	.2752
Some	.1471	.0179	67.80	.1445
Little or none	.0			
Choice in arranging hours				
Entire	.0743	.0244	9.28	.0739
Some	.0648	.0255	6.44	.0612
Little or none	.0			
How came to participate in program				
Applied for financial aid	-.0215	.0165	1.70	-.0210
Employment office directed	-.0135	.0274	0.24	-.0079
Asked for CWS job	.0			
Through other channels	-	-	0.00	-.0001
Sex				
Female	-	-	0.00	-.0004
Male	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.2425
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.0588
Standard Error	.4854
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4387
Constant Term	.2931

Table A 5.3(a)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Coefficient
Advantages associated with CWS Job				
Acquired skill or knowledge useful in future	.1548	.01622	91.10	.1416
More confident about accepting responsibility	.1399	.0158	78.88	.1371
Doing some thing worthwhile for others	.1020	.0154	43.74	.1017
Made some close friends	.0967	.0150	41.34	.0950
More sure of career choice	.1074	.0166	41.63	.0958
Learned more about people	.0199	.0168	1.41	.0178
Other advantage	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.3531
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.1247
Standard Error	.4675
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4438
Constant Term	.1847

Table A 5.3(b)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable	Regression Coef- ficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Co- efficient
Disadvantages associated with CWS Job				
Disillusioned about working world	-.2890	.0258	125.03	-.1632
Too little time for studying	-.1302	.0165	62.38	-.1168
Other disadvantages[a]	-.1914	.0298	41.26	-.0939
Too little time for athletics or extra-curricular activities	-.0804	.0156	26.41	-.1762
Confused about what wants	-.1223	.0308	15.76	-.0579
Too little time for friends or family	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.2447
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.0599
Standard Error	.4845
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4439
Constant Term	6339

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[a] Student may have written in that he had difficulty arranging class schedule because of conflict with working hours.

Table A 5.3(c)

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Coefficient
Disadvantages of CWS Job				
Disillusioned about working world	-.2039	.0242	71.16	-.1151
Too little time for studying	-.1194	.0153	61.10	-.1071
Too little time for athletics or extracurricular activities	-.0744	.0145	26.44	-.0705
Other disadvantages	-.1243	.0276	20.25	-.0610
Confused about what wants	-.1119	.0287	15.17	-.0530
Too little time for friends or family	.0			
Advantages of CWS Job				
More confident about accepting responsibility	.0987	.0155	40.65	.0967
Acquired skill or knowledge useful in future	.1004	.0162	38.52	.0918
Made some close friends	.0860	.0144	35.50	.0845
More sure of career choice	.0842	.0164	26.44	.0751
Doing something worthwhile for others	.0713	.0150	22.53	.0712
Learned more about people	.0101	.0163	0.38	.0090
Other advantage	.0			

Table A 5.3(c)--Continued

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CWS JOB SATISFACTION

Dependent Variable: Very Satisfied With CWS Job

Independent Variable	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error	F	Beta Coefficient
Characteristics of Job				
A great degree of "make work"	-.1209	.0175	47.46	-.0946
Responsibility	.1106	.0185	35.61	.0930
Physical exertion	-.0639	.0166	14.84	-.0542
Intelligence and judgement	.0560	.0162	11.89	.0547
Clerical skills	.0466	.0145	10.40	.0467
Close supervision of my work	-.0363	.0164	4.92	-.0302
Opportunity for advancement	.0520	.0240	4.71	.0297
Technical skills	.0354	.0201	3.10	.0249
Regular hours	.0236	.0137	2.98	.0236
Other advantage	.0			

SUMMARY

Multiple Correlation Coefficient	.4516
Coefficient of Multiple Determination	.2039
Standard Error	.4466
Residual Degrees of Freedom	4424
Constant Term	.2536

TABLE A.5.4

NUMBER OF JOB ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES CITED BY SELECTED STUDENT AND JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Student and Job Characteristics	(N)	Number of Advantages			Number of Disadvantages		
		None Or One	Two Or Three	Four Or More	None	One	Two Or More
Sex							
Male	(2372)	19.1%	36.7%	44.2%	39.8%	35.7%	24.5%
Female	(3551)	10.6	37.5	51.8	37.1	36.6	26.2
Ethnicity							
Black	(1094)	13.8%	36.1%	50.1%	45.2%	34.0%	20.8%
White	(4294)	14.1	37.8	48.1	37.0	37.1	25.9
Gross Family Income							
Less than $3000	(739)	13.0%	36.8%	50.2%	39.8%	36.9%	23.3%
$9000 or more	(1245)	17.2	40.6	42.1	37.2	37.3	25.4
Mean SAT-Verbal	529 (1184)	542 (228)	528 (483)	524 (473)	528 (429)	528 (429)	533 (326)
Class Level							
Freshman	(1675)	16.0%	39.5%	44.4%	38.9%	35.6%	25.5%
Senior	(1134)	12.1	34.7	53.1	38.6	36.4	25.0
Graduate Student	(234)	15.0	38.9	46.1	44.4	30.7	24.8
Residence							
Home with family	(1615)	11.1%	33.2%	55.6%	40.7%	37.6%	21.7%
Dormitory	(2644)	15.1	38.9	46.0	37.7	35.9	26.3

TABLE A.5.4 --Continued

Selected Student and Job Characteristics	(N)	Number of Advantages			Number of Disadvantages		
		None Or One	Two Or Three	Four Or More	None	One	Two Or More
Percent CWS Earnings Constitutes of Total College Costs							
Less than 20%	(1129)	20.8%	41.5%	37.6%	42.2%	34.9%	22.9%
60% or more	(965)	10.0	32.5	57.5	37.3	37.4	25.2
Job Ranking							
High	(961)	10.3%	31.4%	40.4%	41.4%	34.0%	24.6%
Medium	(2214)	11.6	36.7	51.7	37.9	35.5	26.7
Low	(1760)	19.6	41.2	39.2	34.3	40.2	25.5
Match of Current Job with Preferred Job							
Matched	(2067)	7.5%	32.8%	59.7%	42.7%	35.8%	21.5%
Not Matched	(2062)	21.2	41.7	37.0	29.0	39.0	32.0
Choice in Job							
Entirely	(1704)	9.7%	33.6%	56.7%	40.9%	37.2%	21.9%
Some	(2202)	12.8	37.5	49.8	37.5	37.1	25.4
Little or none	(1523)	20.9	41.7	37.4	34.7	35.5	29.7
Choice in Hours							
Entirely	(2780)	12.7%	37.0%	50.2%	39.2%	36.2%	24.6%
Some	(1805)	14.5	37.8	47.7	37.0	37.0	26.1
Little or none	(634)	19.6	36.3	44.2	35.3	36.9	27.7
Relation of Job to Academic Major							
Related	(1295)	10.5%	32.6%	56.9%	40.2%	35.4%	24.3%
Unrelated	(3437)	15.3	39.1	45.6	36.0	37.6	26.4

TABLE A.5.4 --Continued

Selected Student and Job Characteristics	(N)	Number of Advantages			Number of Disadvantages		
		None Or One	Two Or Three	Four Or More	None	One	Two Or More
Relationship of Job to Intended Career							
Related	(925)	7.8%	29.6%	62.6%	40.8%	36.0%	23.2%
Unrelated	(3163)	15.4	40.3	44.3	35.3	37.7	27.0
Job Location							
On-campus	(4764)	15.0%	38.5%	46.5%	42.7%	35.8%	21.5%
Off-campus	(577)	6.8	28.2	65.0	37.1	36.2	26.7
Mean Hours Worked per Week	12.8% (5403)	12.0 (761)	12.6 (2023)	13.7 (2619)	12.8 (2049)	13.0 (1983)	13.6 (1371)
Job Involves:							
Technical Skills							
Yes	(754)	9.2%	31.3%	59.6%	37.4%	36.2%	26.4%
No	(5243)	14.8	38.0	47.3	38.5	36.3	25.2
Clerical Skills							
Yes	(2640)	9.0%	35.7%	55.3%	36.1%	37.0%	26.9%
No	(3357)	18.1	38.2	43.7	40.1	35.7	24.4
Regular Hours							
Yes	(2735)	11.8%	36.5%	51.8%	36.7%	37.4%	25.9%
No	(3262)	16.0	37.7	46.4	39.7	35.3	25.0
Physical Exertion							
Yes	(1311)	17.5%	34.5%	48.0%	35.8%	36.2%	28.0%
No	(4686)	13.1	37.9	49.1	39.0	36.3	24.7

TABLE A.5.4 --Continued

Selected Student and Job Characteristics	(N)	Number of Advantages			Number of Disadvantages		
		None Or One	Two Or Three	Four Or More	None	One	Two Or More
Job Involves:							
Opportunity for Advancement							
Yes	(477)	6.7%	25.2%	68.1%	38.6%	35.8%	25.6%
No	(5520)	14.7	38.2	47.2	38.3	36.3	25.4
Responsibility							
Yes	(4182)	8.7%	34.8%	56.5%	38.1%	36.4%	25.5%
No	(1814)	26.5	42.4	31.1	38.9	35.9	25.2
Intelligence and Judgment							
Yes	(3245)	6.5%	31.6%	61.9%	38.1%	36.0%	25.9%
No	(2752)	23.0	43.6	33.4	38.6	36.6	24.8
Close Supervision							
Yes	(1201)	1.02%	33.6%	56.3%	33.6%	36.3%	30.2%
No	(4796)	15.1	38.0	47.0	39.5	36.2	24.2
Make Work							
Yes	(976)	20.0%	37.9%	42.1%	30.1%	38.1%	31.8%
No	(5021)	12.9	37.0	50.1	39.9	35.9	24.2
Feel Pay is							
High	(132)	23.5%	37.1%	39.4%	39.4%	38.6%	22.0%
Right	(3774)	13.4	37.8	47.9	40.8	36.7	22.6
Low	(1460)	15.3	33.7	51.0	30.1	36.2	33.7
Get Paid On Time							
Always	(3380)	14.1%	38.1%	47.8%	38.2%	36.9%	24.9
Usually	(1794)	14.1	36.2	49.8	37.3	36.7	26.1
Rarely	(215)	11.6	34.0	54.4	38.1	30.2	31.6

TABLE A.5.4 --Continued

Selected Student and Job Characteristics	(N)	Number of Advantages			Number of Disadvantages		
		None Or One	Two Or Three	Four Or More	None	One	Two Or More
Fallen Behind							
Yes	(1992)	16.3%	37.7%	46.1%	21.3%	37.4%	41.2%
No	(3448)	12.9	37.2	49.8	47.4	36.3	16.4
Other Job Paid More							
Yes	(3188)	16.6%	38.2%	45.1%	37.4%	36.3%	26.2%
No	(1855)	10.8	36.2	52.9	39.2	35.6	25.2
Other Job(s) More Skill							
Yes	(3256)	18.4%	40.2%	41.4%	37.5%	35.5%	27.0%
No	(1769)	7.3	32.7	60.0	39.0	37.1	23.8
Satisfied							
Very	(2963)	6.6%	32.9%	60.5%	45.3%	36.6%	18.1%
Somewhat	(1828)	18.2	43.8	38.0	31.5	36.1	32.4
Dissatisfied	(626)	37.7	39.9	22.3	20.6	38.8	40.6
Percent Agreeing That:	(5997)	(844)	(2226)	(2927)	(2299)	(2174)	(1524)
Work should be avoided	21.2%	31.3%	22.2%	16.3%	12.2%	20.7%	33.0%
Better if work	55.1	43.2	53.5	60.9	61.0	54.9	48.7
Better grades if no work	26.7	33.5	28.7	22.2	12.2	24.7	49.4
Some look down on workers	18.4	17.4	17.7	19.4	14.7	19.2	23.1
Job relieves boredom	35.1	15.6	32.8	45.8	41.7	38.2	27.1

TABLE A.5.5

MEAN GPA AND PERCENT REPORTING HAVING FALLEN BEHIND IN STUDIES AND TOO LITTLE TIME FOR STUDYING OR OTHER ACTIVITIES BY SELECTED STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

Student Characteristics	Mean GPA	Have Fallen Behind In Studies	Too Little Time For Studying	Social Pressures	(N)
Sex					
Male	2.62 (2279)	38.1% (2196)	21.5%	39.4%	(2490)
Female	2.68 (3367)	35.4 (3280)	28.2	28.4	(3662)
Class Level					
Freshman	2.51 (1574)	31.3% (1480)	23.8%	38.7	(1744)
Sophomore	2.61 (1665)	34.9 (1606)	25.6	40.6	(1784)
Junior	2.62 (1132)	41.4 (1087)	27.5	40.9	(1218)
Senior	2.69 (1103)	40.2 (1076)	25.5	38.5	(1175)
Residence					
Home	2.59 (1500)	31.1% (1465)	20.6%	38.5%	(1669)
Dormitory	2.61 (2541)	35.6 (2403)	27.8	39.8	(2741)
Ethnicity					
Black	2.29 (1036)	32.4% (934)	17.5%	35.1%	(1133)
White	2.72 (4120)	36.9 (4070)	27.0	40.0	(4468)

TABLE A.5.5--Continued

Student Characteristics	Mean GPA		Have Fallen Behind In Studies		Too Little Time For Studying	Social Pressures	(N)
Income							
Less than $3000	2.48	(691)	35.4%	(663)	23.7%	39.1%	(760)
$9000 or more	2.73	(1190)	37.8	(1197)	25.5	39.2	(1300)
High School Rank							
Top 10%	2,89	(2032)	36.8%	(2024)	28.9%	40.6%	(2227)
Top quarter	2.60	(1431)	36.3	(1382)	24.6	40.1	(1550)
Second quarter or less	2,38	(1473)	38.0	(1415)	23.7	39.5	(1602)
Ever Fallen Behind							
Yes	2,55	(1855)	-	-	46,7%	50.5	(2013)
No	2,69	(3234)	-	-	13.7	35.0	(3524)
Too Little Time To Study							
Yes	2,64	(1463)	66,0%	(1424)	-	58.0%	(1582)
No	2,61	(4259)	26.1	(4113)	-	33.2	(4653)

TABLE A.6.1(a)

AVERAGE OF FIRST AND SECOND SIX MONTH ALLOCATIONS BY SELECTED INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Selected Institutional Correlates	(n)	Average of Allocations		
		Under 75%	75-89%	90%+
Federal Region				
I	(144)	61.1%	22.2%	16.7%
II	(198)	95.5	-	4.5
III	(247)	4.5	-	95.5
IV	(409)	-	23.7	76.3
V	(356)	-	40.2	59.8
VI	(180)	23.9	15.0	61.1
VII	(124)	-	40.3	59.7
VIII	(87)	40.2	27.6	32.2
IX	(183)	92.3	5.5	2.2
X	(78)	88.5	-	11.5
Type/Control				
Private university	(82)	40.2%	15.9%	43.9%
Public university	(148)	25.7	16.2	58.1
Private four-year	(654)	28.3	17.1	54.6
Public four-year	(247)	28.3	16.6	55.1
Private two-year	(216)	26.9	18.5	54.6
Public two-year	(659)	33.4	23.2	43.4
Racial Composition				
Predominantly white	(1915)	31.0%	19.5%	49.5%
Predominantly black	(91)	11.0	9.9	79.1
Selectivity				
High	(374)	46.0%	12.0%	42.0%
Medium	(455)	25.5	18.2	56.3
Low	(730)	24.7	21.5	53.8

TABLE A.6.1(b)

SELECTED PROGRAM CHARACTERISTICS BY AVERAGE OF FIRST AND SECOND SIX MONTH ALLOCATIONS

Selected Program Characteristics	All Institutions	Average of First and Second Six Month Allocations		
		Under 75%	75-89%	90%+
CWS Allocation Always Adequate	25.8% (2006)	16.4% (604)	21.4% (383)	33.1% (1019)
Federal Allocation Substantially Less Than Requested	46.0% (1860)	70.9% (570)	50.1% (347)	29.4% (943)
Percent Who Received Supplemental Allocation	61.5% (1973)	78.5% (595)	69.0% (377)	48.6% (1001)
Allocation Per Student is $500 or More	16.9% (1844)	21,2% (546)	13.6% (359)	15.5% (939)
70% of All Eligible Are Offered Employment	35.4% (1957)	32.0% (590)	35.9% (368)	37.3% (999)
Percent Who See CWS as Means of Maintaining Normal Operations	62.0% (1938)	53,6% (582)	59.4% (367)	67.8% (989)
Percent Who Have Used CWS Students Instead of Regular Employees	45.1% (1959)	42.1% (587)	47.5% (375)	46.0% (997)
Major Problem: Estimating Funds Need for Year	21.3% (1969)	21,4% (589)	20.9% (378)	21.5% (1002)
Major Problem: Uncertainty About Funds for Second Half of Year	65,0% (1972)	74.1% (591)	67.0% 9376)	58.8% (1005)

TABLE A.6.2

SELECTED ADMINISTRATIVE ITEMS BY WHETHER INSTITUTION HAD AN OFF-CAMPUS PROGRAM IN FALL 1969 AND FALL 1970[a]

Selected Administrative Items	Off-Campus Employment Program			
	Both Years	1969 but not 1970	1970 but not 1969	Neither Year
Number of Years of Insufficient Funding	(701)	(28)	(228)	(164)
Zero	21.8%	10.7%	25.4%	26.2%
One	27.4	25.6	39.3	27.6
Two to three	32.4	32.1	30.3	25.0
Four to five	18.8	17.9	16.7	21.3
1970-71 Federal Allocation Substantially Less Than Request	51.8% (685)	69.2% (26)	45,2% (208)	44.2% (154)
Average of First and Second Six Month Allocation Less Than 75%	32.4% (713)	44.8% (29)	29.7% (236)	26.6% (169)
Appealed 1970 Regional Panel Recommendation	56. % (701)	43. % (27)	66. % (231)	53. % (163)
Percent of Student Financially Aided:	(708)	(28)	(229)	(167)
Less than 30%	25.7%	21.4%	36.7%	29.9%
30-69%	34.9	25.0	31.9	33.5
70% or more	39.4	53.6	31.4	36.5
Percent of Those Eligible Offered Work-Study	(704)	(25)	(233)	(165)
Less than 30%	29.5%	28.0%	36.9%	29.7%
30-69%	39.3	48.0	26.6	35.2
70% or more	31.1	24.0	36.5	35.1

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[a] The 126 proprietary and vocational institutions have been excluded

TABLE A.6.2--Continued

Selected Administrative Items	Off-Campus Employment Program			
	Both Years	1969 but not 1970	1970 but not 1969	Neither Year
Percent Who Find The Following to be a "Major Problem":				
Estimating needed CWS funds	18.6% (698)	14.3% (28)	17.5% (234)	17.9% (168)
Uncertain about funds for second half of year	69.1% (705)	82.1% (28)	64.1% (234)	70.1% (167)
Finding eligible Work-Study students	4.0% (697)	3.6% (28)	4.8% (228)	9.1% (165)
Covering administrative expenses with 3%	27.0% (684)	28.6% (28)	28.5% (228)	33.3% (165)
Percent Who See CWS as Means of Maintaining Normal Operations	61.4% (695)	69.0% (29)	61.6% (229)	65.3% (167)
Percent Forced to Use CWS in Place of Regular Employment	6.4% (704)	17.2% (29)	6.0% (235)	6.6% (166)
Percent Who Sometimes Arrange Summer Off-Campus Employment Near Student's Home	59.7% (673)	64.0% (25)	48.3% (209)	50.3% (147)
Percent Indicating Work-Study Program "Very Successful" at Their Institution	77.4% (708)	62.1% (29)	70.6% (235)	72.9% (166)

TABLE A.7.1

PERCENT OF EMPLOYERS REPORTING SELECTED EFFECTS OF THE CWS PROGRAM ON STUDENTS AND ON AGENCY BY NUMBER OF YEARS AGENCY HAS PARTICIPATED IN THE PROGRAM

Employer Reports of Program Effects	Number of Years in CWS Program		
	One or Two	Three or Four	Five or More
On Students			
Useful Skills	81.4%	84.9%	86.6%
Positive Attitudes	78.3	83.0	88.0
Relieved Boredom	21.5	19.3	21.1
Skepticism	7.0	4.4	7.8
Resent Work	2.4	2.4	4.2
On Agency			
Expanded Operations	62.9%	69.4%	68.8%
Reduced Cost	47.3	51.3	51.5
Understand Students	43.0	49.9	55.2
Aware of College	23.9	26.1	24.0
Better Educated	17.4	17.0	18.4
(N)	(628)	(637)	(837)

TABLE A.7.2

GAMMA COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN COMPONENTS OF EMPLOYMENT POTENTIAL INDEX AND SELECTED AGENCY OR EMPLOYER CHARACTERISTICS[a]

Selected Agency or Employer Characteristics	Components of Employment Potential Index			
	Job Recommendation	Extra Hours	Summer Employment	After Graduation Employment
Size of Agency				
Number of CWS students employed in unit	.3262	.2209	.2469	.2844
Number of full-time regular employees in unit	.0370	.0292	.1872	.1318
Number of part-time regular employees in unit	.1309	.1491	.2952	.1498
Employer Status				
Faculty member versus other	-.2195	.0574	-.1934	-.4751
Male versus female	-.0026	.1577	.1772	.1299
Immediate supervisor versus over-seer	.0744	.0931	.2590	.2628
Skill-Level and Relevance				
Number of weeks to learn the job	.1551	.1499	.2109	.1493
Does employer offer on-the-job training?	.2688	.2412	.2163	.3526
Does employer provide job descriptions?	.2856	.1083	.0756	.0971
Is work relevant to academics or career?	.3027	.1187	.1186	.3183
Is student placed because work is relevant?	.2838	.0990	.1034	.2837

TABLE A.7.2 Continued

Selected Agency or Employer Characteristics	Components of Employment Potential Index			
	Job Recommendation	Extra Hours	Summer Employment	After Graduation Employment
Employer Demand				
Did employer receive requested number of CWS?	-.1849	-.1587	-.2595	-.1729
Employer's future needs for CWS students	.2276	.2535	.2404	.2185
Possible effect on employer of a CWS reduction	.4213	.2263	.1235	.1105
Employer				
Employer acquainted with CWS Coordinator?	.2452	.1594	.0443	.1975
Has employer complained about program?	.2048	.0980	.0680	.1392
Has employer suggested a program change?	.4056	.2749	.2630	.3566
How involved is CWS Coordinator in work?	.2285	.0991	.0152	.1653

[a] Tables A.7.2 - A.7.7 report relationships in the form of Goodman-Kruskal's Gamma coefficients. Gammas vary between 1.0000 and -1.0000, and indicate both the extent and direction of relationships between ordinal variables (variables which order respondents as possessing "more than" or "less than" the indicated characteristic).

TABLE A.7.3

EMPLOYMENT POTENTIAL BY SELECTED INDICATORS OF AGENCY SIZE FOR AGENCIES WITH DIFFERENT NUMBERS OF CWS EMPLOYEES, FOR ON- AND OFF-CAMPUS AGENCIES, AND FOR FACULTY AND NON-FACULTY EMPLOYERS

Selected Controls	Selected Indicators of Agency Size		
	Number CWS Employees	Number Regular Full-Time Employees	Number Regular Part-Time Employees
All Employers (EPI)	.3486[a]	.1384	.2541
Number of CWS Employees			
0 - 1	—	.1344	.1329
2 - 3	—	.0633	.1434
4 - 9	—	.0083	.2355
10+	—	-.0012	.2528
Agency Location			
On-Campus	.3679	.1526	.2238
Off-Campus	.3597	.1138	.2806
Employer Status			
Faculty	.3095	.1674	.2746
Other	.3789	.1323	.2424

TABLE A.7.4

EMPLOYMENT POTENTIAL BY EMPLOYER STATUS FOR AGENCIES WITH DIFFERENT NUMBERS OF CWS EMPLOYEES, FOR ON- AND OFF-CAMPUS AGENCIES, AND FOR FACULTY AND NON-FACULTY EMPLOYERS

Selected Controls	Employer Status		
	College Teacher	Male	Immediate Supervisor
All Employers (EPI)	-.2195	.1416	.2008
Number of CWS Employees			
0 - 1	-.1872	.0936	.1022
2 - 3	-.1430	.1770	.1112
4 - 9	-.2879	.2510	.0418
10+	-.3165	.1054	.2652
Agency Location			
On-Campus	-.2295	.0762	.2359
Off-Campus	-.0472	.2671	.1529
Employer Status			
Faculty	—	.1322	.1715
Other	—	.2209	.2202

TABLE A.7.5

EMPLOYMENT POTENTIAL BY SELECTED INDICATORS OF JOB RELEVANCE AND SKILL LEVEL FOR AGENCIES WITH DIFFERENT NUMBERS OF CWS EMPLOYEES, FOR ON- AND OFF-CAMPUS AGENCIES, AND FOR FACULTY AND NON-FACULTY EMPLOYERS

Selected Controls	Selected Indicators of Job Relevance and Skill Level				
	Number Of Weeks To Learn Job	Employer Offers On-the-Job Training	Employer Provides Job Descriptions	Work Is Relevant to Academics Or Career	Student Placed because Work Is Relevant
All Employers (EPI)	.2086	.3156	.1421	.2412	.2256
Number of CWS Employees					
0 - 1	.2680	.2412	.0796	.3016	.2429
2 - 3	.2173	.2990	.1462	.2503	.2228
4 - 9	.1823	.3795	.0131	.2643	.2846
10+	.1721	.3164	.2705	.1580	.1902
Agency Location					
On-Campus	.2269	.3356	.0986	.1775	.1843
Off-Campus	.1573	.2593	.2065	.3019	.2728
Employer Status					
Faculty	.2814	.3126	.1165	.1848	.1593
Other	.1643	.3106	.1816	.3301	.3083

TABLE A.7.6

EMPLOYMENT POTENTIAL BY SELECTED INDICATORS OF EMPLOYER NEED FOR AGENCIES WITH DIFFERENT NUMBERS OF CWS EMPLOYEES, FOR ON- AND OFF-CAMPUS AGENCIES, AND FOR FACULTY AND NON-FACULTY EMPLOYERS

Selected Controls	Selected Indicators of Employer Need		
	Received Requested Number of CWS	Future Needs For CWS Students	Effect of a CWS Reduction On Employer
All Employers (EPI)	-.2237	.2716	.2470
Number of CWS Employees			
0 - 1	-.2925	.2552	.1793
2 - 3	-.0899	.1819	.0693
4 - 9	-.2616	.2489	.1072
10+	-.2218	.3458	.2840
Agency Location			
On-Campus	-.1904	.1964	.2563
Off-Campus	-.2054	.3731	.2815
Employer Status			
Faculty	-.2226	.2317	.3029
Other	-.2400	.3087	.2522

TABLE A.7.7

EMPLOYMENT POTENTIAL BY SELECTED INDICATORS OF WORK-STUDY COORDINATOR/ EMPLOYER LINKAGES FOR AGENCIES WITH DIFFERENT NUMBERS OF CWS EMPLOYEES, FOR ON- AND OFF-CAMPUS AGENCIES, AND FOR FACULTY AND NON-FACULTY EMPLOYERS

Selected Controls	Employer Acquainted with CWS Coordinator	Employer Has Complained About Program	Employer Suggested Program Change	How Involved Is CWS Coordinator In Work
All Employers	.1794	.1301	.3920	.1421
Number of CWS Employers				
0 - 1	-.0028	.0050	.3609	.0385
2 - 3	.0151	-.0203	.2466	.0724
4 - 9	.1641	-.0017	.3285	.0974
10+	.2332	.1625	.3606	.1353
Agency Location				
On-Campus	.2024	.1376	.3896	.1231
Off-Campus	.2546	.1009	.3973	.2103
Employer Status				
Faculty	.0901	.1126	.3696	.1139
Other	.2367	.1219	.4183	.1553

TABLE A.9.1

PERCENT OF APPLICATIONS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION BY ENROLLMENT CHANGE AND FEDERAL REGION

Federal Region	Percent of Applications Reduced		Mean Percent of Reduction	
	Enrollment Change		Enrollment Change	
	No Increase or Under 15%	15% or More	No Increase or Under 15%	15% or More
The Nation	50.91%	54.00%	13.76%	24.60%
I	68.87	69.84	13.75	17.91
II	70.00	70.69	12.59	31.93
III	45.36	52.24	11.67	25.60
IV	51.91	56.17	10.27	24.01
V	29.78	28.46	12.70	21.57
VI	41.10	60.49	14.87	30.12
VII	79.57	68.63	15.29	22.34
VIII	75.00	75.00	16.91	28.67
IX	29.13	39.56	17.22	21.42
X	63.79	66.67	12.78	18.33

TABLE 9.2

PERCENT OF APPLICATIONS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION BY LOW INCOME ENROLLMENT AND FEDERAL REGION

Low Income Enrollment	Federal Region										Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	
Percent of Applications Reduced											
Under 15%	60.0%	68.2%	45.1%	58.3%	36.1%	(1)	78.8%	62.5%	28.0%	58.8%	50.8%
15-34%	73.6	66.7	58.6	53.0	31.6	35.0	80.0	78.6	35.4	71.4	53.9
35% or more	60.0	70.6	60.0	56.4	30.4	56.1	30.6	80.0	47.0	58.0	56.5
Mean Percent of Reduction											
Under 15%	17.6%	18.8%	12.8%	14.2%	13.4%	(1)	14.0%	7.8%	19.9%	12.8%	15.6%
15-34%	17.2	21.0	19.4	13.5	17.1	10.4	17.7	17.3	18.4	14.9	17.2
35% or more	12.4	31.0	27.9	19.8	28.8	27.6	22.3	30.0	28.6	21.3	24.5

TABLE A.9.3

PERCENT OF APPLICATIONS REDUCED AND MEAN PERCENT OF REDUCTION BY AVERAGE AWARD AND FEDERAL REGION

Average Award	FEDERAL REGION									
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
Percent of Applications Reduced										
Under $500	36.4%	38.6%	32.8%	22.8%	21.5%	32.0%	55.6%	54.6%	14.3%	20.0%
$500-799	66.2	64.7	50.0	43.7	22.7	40.4	70.6	72.7	21.0	70.0
$800-1199	78.0	77.3	50.6	62.6	33.6	61.4	88.9	83.3	42.2	70.8
$1200 or more	90.7	80.8	63.0	87.5	44.2	80.0	100.0	75.0	43.2	75.0
Mean Percent of Reduction										
Under $500	16.0	22.1	9.1	12.6	11.6	16.0	21.4	32.0	18.2	2.0
$500-799	12.1	15.5	14.6	9.9	17.8	15.3	12.0	13.0	13.8	12.0
$800-1199	13.5	15.1	16.6	14.3	15.6	18.3	16.8	20.0	30.4	17.4
$1200 or more	20.9	29.5	33.3	23.9	17.2	41.2	33.1	43.1	19.9	14.1

TABLE A.9.4

PERCENT OF INSTITUTIONS WITH HIGH COMMITMENT OF PROGRAM FUNDS TO LOW INCOME STUDENTS BY PROGRAM AND PERCENT OF ENROLLMENT FROM LOW INCOME FAMILIES

Percent of Enrollment from Low-Income Families	EOG		CWS	
	Mean Percent of Recommendation Funded	Percent Committing 75% or More of Funds to Low Income Students	Mean Percent of Recommendation Funded	Percent Committing 75% or More of Funds to Low Income Students
Less than 15%	64.02%	31.94%	79.53%	49.44%
15-24	62.20	26.57	79.73	48.35
25-34	64.56	31.44	80.09	47.33
35-54	62.86	28.96	81.65	49.48
55-100	64.23	31.90	89.31	71.04

TABLE A.9.5

MEAN PERCENT OF TOTAL RECOMMENDATION FUNDED FOR EOG-IY AND CWS PROGRAMS BY LEVEL OF COMMITMENT TO LOW-INCOME STUDENTS AND FEDERAL REGION

Federal Region	Percent of Funds Committed for Awards to Low-Income Students (EOG-IY)					
	100%	90-99%	80-89%	70-79%	65-69%	Less Than 55%
I	90% (17)	89% (21)	80% (34)	75% (42)	65% (40)	57% (29)
II	67% (33)	58% (33)	52% (43)	51% (30)	42% (35)	38% (21)
III	90% (22)	86% (17)	77% (49)	77 (55)	66% (54)	67% (29)
IV	65% (72)	62% (52)	60% (79)	54% (73)	54% (44)	37% (17)
V	68% (27)	67% (42)	64% (70)	58% (92)	55% (66)	45% (30)
VI	87% (23)	81% (37)	74% (50)	72% (29)	63% (30)	63% (8)
VII	93% (20)	83% (16)	83% (40)	71% (30)	68% (29)	56% (17)
VIII	62% (7)	69% (14)	63% (25)	57% (16)	60% (16)	41% (4)
IX	65% (26)	69% (35)	63% (36)	60% (35)	46% (33)	44% (10)
X	62% (9)	69% (9)	60% (21)	56% (12)	57% (15)	55% (4)

TABLE A.9.5--Continued

Federal Region	Percent of Funds Committed for Awards to Low-Income Students (CWS)					
	80-100%	70-79%	60-69%	50-59%	40-49%	Less Than 40%
I	98% (20)	90% (11)	84% (23)	83% (40)	71% (28)	62% (84)
II	78% (32)	80% (19)	73% (25)	69% (42)	61% (44)	59% (55)
III	97% (29)	99% (28)	97% (31)	96% (48)	99% (41)	95% (72)
IV	93% (103)	90% (85)	85% (67)	83% (56)	79% (42)	81% (31)
V	86% (40)	81% (49)	81% (61)	77% (75)	78% (79)	76% (75)
VI	94% (58)	92% (42)	90% (44)	91% (41)	84% (22)	90% (16)
VII	100% (19)	99% (19)	98% (37)	95% (37)	93% (26)	92% (25)
VIII	92% (10)	80% (18)	71% (18)	68% (23)	65% (12)	59% (12)
IX	78% (56)	69% (38)	64% (25)	57% (31)	58% (25)	51% (28)
X	77% (12)	76% (9)	77% (13)	74% (15)	58% (16)	60% (10)

TABLE A.9.6

MEAN PERCENT OF LOW-INCOME COMMITMENT FUNDED FOR EOG-IY AND CWS PROGRAMS BY LEVEL OF COMMITMENT TO LOW-INCOME STUDENTS AND FEDERAL REGION

Percent of Funds Committed for Awards to Low-Income Students	Federal Region									
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
EOG-IY										
100%	90%	69%	90%	65%	69%	87%	94%	56%	65%	62%
90-99	97	62	93	67	72	87	90	72	74	78
80-89	96	61	93	72	76	88	100	74	74	71
70-79	101	69	104	73	78	97	99	78	80	74
55-69	103	67	107	88	90	101	109	94	73	91
Less than 55%	139	95	147	81	101	129	127	97	93	181
CWS										
80-100%	88%	69%	90%	84%	78%	84%	89%	98%	70%	72%
70-79	97	88	109	98	88	102	105	84	73	82
60-69	105	91	123	106	102	114	126	90	81	99
50-59	121	100	139	122	119	137	141	103	83	94
40-49	136	108	179	140	143	154	166	120	106	102
Less than 40%	249	178	326	262	270	255	307	176	146	186

APPENDIX B

STATES IN FEDERAL DHEW REGIONS

Region I

- Connecticut
- Maine
- Massachusetts
- New Hampshire
- Rhode Island
- Vermont

Region II

- New Jersey
- New York
- Puerto Rico
- Virgin Islands

Region III

- Delaware
- District of Columbia
- Maryland
- Pennsylvania
- Virginia
- West Virginia

Region IV

- Alabama
- Florida
- Georgia
- Kentucky
- Mississippi
- North Carolina
- South Carolina
- Tennessee

Region V

- Illinois
- Indiana
- Michigan
- Minnesota
- Ohio
- Wisconson

Region VI

- Arkansas
- Louisiana
- New Mexico
- Oklahoma
- Texas

Region VII

- Iowa
- Kansas
- Missouri
- Nebraska

Region VIII

- Colorado
- Montana
- North Dakota
- South Dakota
- Utah
- Wyoming

Region IX

- Arizona
- California
- Hawaii
- Nevada
- American Samoa
- Guam

Region X

- Alaska
- Idaho
- Oregon
- Washington

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